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ABSTRACT

Materials contained in the 16 volumes that make up the Rural America Series suggest practices through which rural schools can meet local community needs and realize their potential for career program delivery. This state of the art review, one of three in the subset of career guidance program support information volumes, summarizes the strengths and limitations of the rural home, school, and community and offers insights into the available and desired career guidance programs for the rural setting. Findings and conclusions are presented in the form of a separate position paper with bibliography on each subtopic: (1) The rural home, (2) the rural school, (3) the rural community, (4) rural attitudes and values, (5) career guidance program planning and implementation, (6) assessment for guidance, (7) career guidance program goals and objectives, (8) resource assessment, (9) methods assessment, (10) career guidance practices for home, school, and community, (11) placement services for rural youth, (12) evaluation, (13) staff development, and (14) community relations and involvement. A brief summary of the whole

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CAREER GUIDANCE, COUNSELING, PLACEMENT, AND FOLLOW-THROUGH PROGRAM FOR RURAL SCHOOLS

State of the Art Review:

A Comprehensive Review of the Strengths and Limitations of the Rural Home, School, and Community for Improved Career Guidance Programs

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CAREER GUIDANCE, COUNSELING, PLACEMENT, AND FOLLOW-THROUGH PROGRAM FOR RURAL (SMALL) SCHOOLS

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FOREWORD

Increasing demands for career guidance, counseling, placement, and follow-through programs in all our nation's school present new challenges. Sensitivity to the career development needs of youth and adults and their unique community environments are paramount to meeting these challenges. This review summarizes the strengths and limitations of the rural home, school and community and offers encyclopedic investigation into the available and desired career guidance programs and services imperative for the rural setting. This perspective is provided to help educational and community leaders in rural areas analyze their present guidance programs and to begin new conceptualizations for program change.

The project staff members who prepared this review are from a consortium of three educational institutions. Thus, several authors working independently, with different perspectives, conducted the literature research in different aspects related to rural career guidance. The initiative and creativity of the staff members at The Center for Vocational Education, Wisconsin Vocational Studies Center, and Northern Michigan University are sincerely appreciated.

Our special appreciation is extended to the project Advisory Committee and individuals in the State Departments of Education of Ohio, Michigan, and Wisconsin. These individuals gave freely of their time to make this position paper on the Rural Guidance State of the Art a more valid contribution to the literature.

We hope you find this report accurate and useful. We solicit your comments for further improvement of the Rural Guidance State of the Art perspective.

Robert E. Taylor
Director

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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INTRODUCTION

During the period of time since 1971, the federal and state governments have undertaken to implement a major reform and redirection of the American educational structure. The term or concept used to describe this movement is career education. The term itself is new, but its substance represents a complex set of inputs of which career development theory and career guidance and counseling programs are primal.

The purpose of this document is to identify, review, and synthesize what we know about the present conditions of existing career guidance programs in rural schools and communities. A preproject study revealed a vast void in the literature concerning the unique career development characteristics of rural youth, as well as the capabilities of rural communities and their schools to provide personalized, comprehensive, and systematic career guidance programs and services.

Perspective

The hypothesis developed for this study was that students living in rural settings are restricted in their career development by such factors as (1) geographic isolation, (2) limited range of occupational role model exposures, (3) declining job and leisure opportunities, (4) migration of rural community population to urban centers, (5) lack of in-residence trained guidance staff, (6) insufficient resources and facilities, and (7) lack of financial support to solve their indigenous problems. These limiting characteristics could result in rural students having unique career planning and preparation problems in contrast to their urban counterparts.

Generalizations concerning characteristics of rural environmental restrictions are as follows: (1) Rural youth frequently do not have the skills, training, value orientation, and personality characteristics that urban youth have and which are necessary for original occupational selection and subsequent movement up the occupational ladder. These differences result from differences in high school education, occupational information levels, educational and occupational aspiration levels, job and living conditions, preferences, and personality characteristics. (2) Rural youth and adults have narrowed visions of occupational opportunities because of their isolation and this is reinforced by the fact that over one-half do not have full-time counselors to aid them in their life role planning and preparation. (3) Counselors, where they exist in rural schools, have little opportunity to exchange ideas with other professionals and have little or no access to means of professional growth. (4) Rural educators are unable to command the financial support necessary to provide needed program change. (5) The distance from students' homes to the available guidance services and the pervading attitudes and values of rural parents usually are such that little or no community-based career development assistance is available or fully utilized. (6) Continuous school leadership which is necessary to gain staff and community support for continuity of effort in the redesign of a career guidance program is often absent in rural schools.

Assumptions

Based upon the limiting conditions cited above, it is proposed that rural youth need additional assistance in (1) understanding self in relationship both to others and to the impinging environment;

(2) perceiving the impact of national and world societal conditions on life expectations; (3) developing an understanding of the characteristics of decision making especially as they relate to occupational, leisure, and avocational preparation; (4) understanding the process of and the skills needed for logical career planning; (5) understanding the comprehensive nature of the world of work and how it affects or is affected by local, state, national, and international economics; and (6) understanding the diversity and the effects of the various attitudes and values held in our society, especially as they relate to sex, race, and socioeconomic factors. Furthermore, these experiences and understandings must be made available on a developmental and systematic basis as a part of all educational programs experienced by youth and adults.

Target Population

For the purpose of this study, the target population are educational staff and students in rural-based educational settings in grades kindergarten through fourteen (K-14). Rural school districts are defined as those districts that draw their student populations from farms, small cities, towns, villages, or hamlets which generally do not exceed 2,500 in population. By definition, non-consolidated rural high schools have populations of below 500 students. The consolidated high schools have no student population limits, but the majority of students come from areas of 2,500 people or less. In addition, the student's place of residence is beyond a twenty-five mile radius of cities of 25,000 or more.

METHODOLOGY

Literature Search

A comprehensive literature search was conducted through the use of The Center for Vocational Education's (CVE) computer search capabilities and through the information retrieval services of The Ohio State University. The Lockheed Retrieval Services, Sunnydale, California, were utilized in identifying the publications stored in the ERIC and AIM/ARM data bases. A retrospective literature search was initiated to identify research documents, books, and journal articles with a publication date of 1970 or later from these data bases. This computer search focused on various aspects of rural career guidance, counseling, placement and follow-through. Some of the major descriptors used for this initial search included:

- Rural Areas
- Rural Dropouts
- Rural Education
- Rural Youth
- Rural Environment
- Rural Family
- Rural Farm Residents
- Small Schools
- Rural Population
- Rural Urban Differences
- Rural Schools
- Rural School System

Appropriate coordinate indexing descriptors (e.g., "guidance," and "counseling") were keyed with the major terms.

ERIC is a national information system which provides ready access to descriptions of exemplary programs, research and development efforts and related information. In addition, the ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools (ERIC/CRESS) is one of the units of the ERIC system. ERIC/CRESS is responsible for acquiring, indexing, abstracting and disseminating information related to all aspects of education of native American Indians, Spanish speaking Americans, migrants, as well as outdoor education, education in small schools, and rural areas. The AIM/ARM data base provided access to abstracts of instructional and research materials in vocational-technical education.

To assure comprehensive coverage, three data bases were searched through the Mechanized Information Center (MIC) at The Ohio State University. These searches examined the files for Social Sciences and the Multidisciplinary Sciences on a retrospective as well as current awareness basis. Notification of ERIC documents was instituted through the current awareness service provided by MIC. The initial computer searches yielded well over 7,000 citations.

Another major approach for identifying research and development efforts and materials involved a national field survey. Letters of inquiry were mailed to all State Supervisors of Guidance, State Directors of Career Education, Research Coordinating Unit Directors, State Directors of Vocational Education, and federally funded career education and guidance project coordinators. Special agencies and individuals specializing in rural education were also contacted. Approximately 350 letters were mailed requesting materials with a 1965 or later publication date from these sources.

Existing literature syntheses were utilized as well. For example, *Guidance: An Annotated Bibliography of ERIC and AIM/ARM Documents, 1975,* and bibliographies on rural education and small schools prepared by ERIC/CRESS provided an additional means of document identification.

Literature Review

The three grantee agencies in this consortium project coordinated the work scope for the literature and materials search and review. A formalized screening procedure established the criteria for initial screening of descriptor cards and abstracts. The primary population targets were rural youth and adults. Secondary targets were the following rural groups: minorities, low income, women, gifted, and physically and mentally handicapped.

Based on review criteria, the literature had to relate to methods, materials, models or staff development within the framework of career guidance, counseling, placement and follow-through or literature that described the characteristics or conditions of the rural environment.

Following the initial screening, approximately 1,500 citations were retained for further processing. Abstracts were obtained for all retained citations.

Further screening and categorization of abstracts were accomplished by the staff of the three cooperating agencies under the direction of the Project Steering Committee. The abstracts were classified further into the following categories: individual assessment, career development needs assessment, resource assessment, goal development, behavioral objectives, delivery planning and implementation, specialized guidance and counseling practices, attitudes and values, community relations, evaluation, placement, follow-up, follow-through, and staff development. All abstracts were reviewed for relevance to each major topical area.

Each agency assumed the responsibility for specific review and professional development of summaries for its area of expertise based on staff backgrounds and capabilities.

Summary Development

The literature reviewed constituted a wide variety of documents. The focus of the review was on documents produced after 1970, but critical material generated before this date was considered to some extent by the individual authors. Authors analyzed each document related to their aspect of the current state of the art in the rural setting. The Center for Vocational Education assumed primary responsibility for integrating the findings in this comprehensive state of the art position paper describing career guidance, counseling, placement and follow-through needs of rural youth.

State of the Art Review

Major emphasis was given to a broad-based review of this paper during its development. Suggestions for data classification or revision were provided not only by project staff but by national advisory members, and selected consultants.

PART I

THE RURAL ENVIRONMENT

UNIQUE AND SHARED CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RURAL ENVIRONMENT

An individual's development is influenced by environmental as well as personal attributes. It is not our purpose to debate the environmental-hereditary nature of development. Rather, we assume that both influence the direction of individual maturation, and further, that these two interact to create unique circumstances which produce a variety of results.

In addition, we believe that it is possible to intervene, consciously changing the environment in order to influence the individual's career development. For example, career development and guidance programs—specifically and in their broadest conception—are efforts to analyze personal and environmental characteristics in order to facilitate greater satisfaction in all aspects of individual career choice, planning, and life role assumption.

Rural youth frequently lack sufficient experiences to make adequate career decisions. Their homes and communities tend to be culturally and geographically isolated, offering limited numbers of visible occupational options. This situation is compounded by the limited resources available to local school personnel and, in some cases, by the limited professional training of the school guidance staff.

Descriptions of influences on rural youth's personal and educational development during the formative years of their lives are the subject here. Information gleaned from the literature related to rural youth reveals the strengths and weaknesses of the rural environment. With these insights, more viable career guidance programs can be planned for rural youth. Assumptions which guided the writing of "The Rural Home," "The Rural School," and "The Rural Community" are the following:

1. All individuals are unique with their own sets of values, beliefs, attitudes, aptitudes, and physical attributes.

2. Environmental factors in the home, school, and community influence the development of individual characteristics.

3. Rural areas of America share many common environmental characteristics.

4. Specific rural areas have additional, local characteristics which make each community unique.

5. Effective career guidance programs are developed by recognizing and using the unique strengths of the home, school, and community.

6. Career guidance and counseling are programmatic efforts to increase awareness and to prepare youth and adults to explore, experience, plan, and make decisions concerning the life roles in which they participate.

7. The major delivery vehicle of the career guidance programs in the school curriculum through which the relationship between learning and living is addressed.

8. Career guidance is an integral part of the school curriculum and has goals, specific objectives and expected outcomes.

9. Career guidance is the shared responsibility of the entire school staff.

10. Leadership and counseling are provided by the professional counselor.

11. Comprehensive career guidance programs best meet the needs of rural youth.

That rural and urban areas are unique environments has long been recognized. Conversely, their shared environment cannot be ignored. Haller (1969) has explained,

> By unique environment we mean those parts of the person's social environment which vary substantially from individual to individual and which produce individual differences in behavior. The elements of a person's unique environment consist of the information presented to him and emphasized as important for him by other people whose judgment and actions he respects. . . . By the term "shared environment" we mean to indicate all variables describing the amount and accuracy of information which, objectively, is readily accessible to all or most people in a group.

These aspects of environment—shared and unique—form the system within which a person's achievement behavior is conducted and which influence action (Haller, 1969). Generalizations concerning rural America can be forwarded, but they must be interpreted judiciously, in full recognition of those unique effects of ethnic background and local conditions, including historical, economical, educational, social, and psychological factors. Shared environmental characteristics of rural areas include decreasing size, predominantly white population, and southern location.

Decreasing Size

The percentage of Americans living in rural areas has steadily declined during the 20th century. The last census reporting more than 50 percent of the population in rural areas was that of 1910 when the rural-urban split was 54.3 percent to 45.7 percent. By 1970, rural residents accounted for 26.5 percent of the nation's population (Bureau of the Census, 1971).

Racial Composition

Whites are the most numerous rural residents composing 90.9 percent of the rural population. The remaining 9.1 percent are Black, Spanish heritage, American Indian, and Oriental, with Blacks predominant (Bureau of the Census, 1972).

Age

The median age of rural inhabitants is increasing, contrary to the trend in urban areas and for the United States as a whole. The median age of rural residents increased between 1960 and 1970 from 27.3 to 27.9 years. In urban areas the trend was in the opposite direction—30.4 to 28.1 years, respectively, for 1960 and 1970. For rural and urban areas combined, the median age decreased between 1960 to 1970 from 29.5 to 28.1, respectively (Bureau of the Census, 1972).

Location

It is tempting to report that the South is the stronghold of rural America; however, in light of its position of having the most rapidly decreasing rural population, that conclusion may be simplistic. The South, composed of the largest number of states (16) which is larger than any other region in the nation, is the only region which has reported consecutive reductions in its rural population since 1950. However, the proportion of residents classified as rural, as opposed to urban, remains the greatest in the South (Bureau of the Census, 1971).

Against this background of shared environmental characteristics, additional unique conditions which interact and press on rural youth will be examined. These include the rural home, school, and community. Each will be examined and its impact discussed. Specifically the following will be described:

1. The rural home—family size, marital status, educational attainment, economic circumstances, attitudes and values, relationships with the rural school and role models.
2. The rural school—students, facilities, resources, staff, career guidance programs, and administration.
3. The rural community—location, population, general economy, employment opportunities, school-community involvement, and community leadership.

THE RURAL HOME

Mary Korfhage
Valija Axelrod
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The rural home provides the initial socialization experiences for its members. Fundamental ideas and norms are usually taught in a conscious manner. Moral and religious attitudes are learned there, too, but usually not as a result of deliberate instruction. The home serves to define the child's role and sense of self. It plays a part in the economic pattern of the community and is usually the major affectual unit for adults. In this sense "home" connotes both a domicile and the interpersonal relationships among its inhabitants.

However "home" has a broader definition—through which it expands to include the neighborhood, community, county, and the like. It is from aggregated data about the larger home that workable conclusions describing the typical, specific rural home can be formulated.

Family Size

The typical rural home consists of two parents and their unmarried children. In rural places with populations of 1,000 to 2,500, household size is small (3.01) persons. It is slightly larger (3.37) in rural areas with populations less than 1,000. Household size in rural places is smaller than in urban areas (3.04) and in the United States as a whole (3.11) (Bureau of the Census, 1972).

Marital Status

The Bureau of the Census (1972) reports larger proportions of rural residents than urban residents as married.

Smaller proportions of rural adults are divorced or separated than urban adults, although slightly more rural males report being widowers than their urban counterparts. Among widows, the rural-urban trend reverses.

Educational Attainment

Level of education (years of school attended) is lower for rural residents (25 years of age or older) than for urban residents of the same age. The national median number of years of school completed is 12.1. Whites consistently report higher median school attendance than Blacks or Spanish heritage. Females of all races, with one exception (urban Whites), attained higher median levels of schooling than their male counterparts.

Only relatively small differences exist in median years of schooling completed by rural nonfarm and farm females. However, rural non-farm males achieved markedly higher levels of education than their farm counterparts. Table 1 summarizes these data.

TABLE 1

Median Years of Schooling by Race, Sex, and Residence

	Total	White	Negro	Spanish Heritage
Total Population				
Male (over 25)	12.1	12.1	9.4	9.9
Females (over 25)	12.1	12.1	10.0	9.4
Total	12.1	12.1	9.8	9.6
Urban				
Males (over 25)	12.2	12.3	10.0	10.2
Females (over 25)	12.1	12.2	10.4	9.5
Total	12.2	12.2	10.2	9.9
Rural Nonfarm				
Males (over 25)	10.9	11.3	7.1	8.3
Females (over 25)	11.5	11.8	8.1	8.4
Total	12.2	11.6	7.7	8.4
Rural Farm				
Males (over 25)	9.9	10.2	6.2	7.5
Females (over 25)	11.5	11.8	7.9	8.4
Total	10.7	11.0	7.2	8.1

*From Table 88. Educational Characteristics by Race for Urban and Rural Residence, 1970. Bureau of the Census, 1970. *Census of Population, General Social and Economic Characteristics United States Summary*, PC(1) - C1.

Economic Circumstances

Two aspects of the economic status of the rural home are important: the structure of rural "industry" and the income realized from it.

The primary industry in rural areas is agribusiness, "the manufacture and distribution of farm supplies, plus the processing, handling, merchandizing, and marketing of food and agricultural products, plus farming itself" (Griessman and Densley, 1969).

Although changes are taking place throughout the agribusiness industry, nowhere are the effects more pronounced than in the farming enterprise itself. Heffernan (1972) identified three types of agricultural structures in rural America: the family farm, corporate-integratee and corporate farmhand.

Furthermore, "rural people—both male and female, farm and nonfarm—are turning to industry as a primary source of livelihood or as a supplement for income derived from farming" (Griessman and Densley, 1969). Changes in source of employment are not usually accompanied by rural to urban migration.

Heffernan (1972) has suggested that corporate-farmhand structures have encouraged the development of distinct social classes in rural areas and have resulted in the lack of integration of corporate-farmhand workers into the activities of the community. Although these changes have not been thoroughly studied, Heffernan's data do suggest substantial changes—greater anomie and decreased community support—in the fabric of rural society.

Another structural change affecting the rural farm involves the changing roles of women. Sawer (1973) has reported that the farm wife's role as business partner and participator in decision making is associated with her involvement in farm tasks and seeking of agricultural information. Her business partner role is encouraged by small family size, but appears to be restricted as farm income and size increase.

Income, both median and mean, among rural residents was lower than urban and national medians and means in 1969. The national median for all races is $7,699; the mean, $9,097. For urban residents the median is $7,979; the mean, $9,427. Rural residents are examined as farm and nonfarm. Rural nonfarm residents report a median income of $7,036 and a mean income of $8,334. Rural farm resident's median income was $6,565. Their mean income was $8,100.

For each group of residents—urban and rural farm and nonfarm—Whites report the highest mean and median incomes, Negroes the lowest, and those of Spanish heritage, in between.

Attitudes and Values

The usual configuration of attitudes and values held by rural residents has been described as agrarianism (Buttel and Flinn, 1975). This philosophy emphasizes rural beliefs typified by the following statements:

1. Rural life is natural for man, while city life is artificial and evil;

2. Ownership of land makes farmers independent, self-reliant and able to resist oppressors; and

3. The farmer's equality and virtue make him the defender of democracy. (Buttel and Flinn, 1975).

Agrarianism in urban areas is related positively to age and farm origin but negatively to size of place of residence. For rural residents, on the other hand, education was the *only* significant (negative) predictor of agrarianism (Buttel and Flinn, 1975).

Buttel and Flinn (1975) concluded,

> Agrarianism was more strongly related to anomie among urban residents than among the rural subset. . . . This may come about because they more directly witness the contradictions between agrarian beliefs and urban realities than to rural groups. . . .
>
> In the rural subsample, educational achievement was a powerful predictor of agrarianism. Perhaps . . . commercial "venturesome" farmers and their small town neighbors have tended to abandon their agrarian values as they become incorporated into the economy of the larger society. By contrast, "laggard," lower class rural residents remain agrarian in orientation and take refuge from their economic isolation in these values.

Similar conclusions were drawn by Heffernan (1972) who noted, "Workers in corporate-farmhand structures are less integrated (reported greater anomie) into the community. . . ." In addition to being less discontented, rural agrarians appear to be more authoritarian, conservative and Republican than urban agrarians (Buttel and Flinn, 1975).

Although satisfaction with rural lifestyle has received only limited investigation, Hynson (1975) found that rural elderly (60 years of age or older) were "more satisfied with their community, expressed greater general happiness, and had less fear than the urban elderly." He also learned that city size did not affect satisfaction with family.

Relationships with the Rural School

> In American society, where emphasis is placed on local authority and local resources in developing educational facilities, rural industrialization enhanced the quest for higher education and appears to coincide with the opening-up and modernization of educational facilities. On the other hand, in areas of limited economic opportunity such as Appalachia, educational opportunities are also limited and, as a result, the upward educational mobility ambitions of lower class youth are markedly depressed. Since industrialization means that the entire system of opportunities is pushed upwards, the net effect of rural industrialization in American society may be to foster greater regional inequities (Schwarzweller, 1973).

Within this context of "depressed educational ambitions" rural youth complete fewer years of schooling and seem less likely to attend college than their urban counterparts.

Nelson (1973), however, has suggested that participation in school activities interacts with community size to foster aspirations to attend college. He posits,

> Small social units will "press" proportionately larger numbers into participation. In this case, the relevant unit is the school with the assumption that community size and

school size vary directly. Furthermore, school size is the most important characteristic explaining participation rates in urban and rural settings.

High participators, Nelson says, aspire to college. The reason is unclear. "Whether the relationship is a link involving integration to the formal system (and goals) of the school or whether participation contributes to confidence in academic skills" (Nelson, 1973), the point remains that the rural school with its range of extracurricular activities can encourage aspirations of college attendance.

Mueller (1974) investigated the lifestyle of rural nonfarm families as a precursor of the school achievement of sons. She compiled the following configuration of characteristics describing successful students:

1. Given a restricted range of occupations, their fathers had better jobs.
2. Their I.Q. scores ranged from 109 to 142, above the group mean of 105.
3. Teachers rated them as good students.
4. Their mean GPA, (grade point average), cumulative for three semesters, was high (3.3).
5. They had high occupational mibility and all expected to go to college.
6. They correctly perceived their parents' expectation that they would go to college.
7. They were trusting and accepting of parental authority.
8. They felt included and integrated into the family, perceiving their parents as affectionate and as interested in them as people.
9. There was high value consensus between mother and son.
10. They knew what their fathers were doing at work and they aspired to similar kinds of jobs.
11. Their fathers were satisfied with their own achievements and felt successful as breadwinners for the family.
12. Their mothers, though ambitious for them, were accepting and approving. (Mueller, 1974).

Generally, the adult attitudes toward school seem to be favorable. Coleman (1975) reported a study in which non-Whites were much more favorable than Whites in their assessment of the quality and direction of change of public schools in their counties. In this research, 73 percent of the non-White subjects as compared to 55 percent of the White subjects agreed that "the public schools have improved over the past decade."

Indian parents' acquaintance with their children's teachers was examined by Biglin and Pratt (1973). "Almost half of the parents said they knew their child's teacher. However, nine out of ten . . . of these same parents said they *would like to know their child's teacher better.*"

Wagner (1973) describes migrant Appalachian parents as uninvolved with the school except in crisis situations. They "see little need for education beyond learning to read and write, and children receive little parental encouragement."

> Appalachian students are traditionalistic and not future-oriented. School generally has little relevance to their life. In this view, school is not something upon which one can build a better life, but something that must be endured for the present.

Wagner, however, notes,

> Appalachian migrant students value personal relationships with school personnel, employers, friends, and others. These rleationships are based upon the personal qualities of the individuals and not on status, income, education, or prestige.

Role Model

The earliest models for children are their parents and siblings. Later, *significant others* (those people whose judgment and actions they respect) expand to include members of the extended family, peers, and other adults in the community.

> There are two main types of significant others, definers and models. Definers influence the youngster because they tell him something about himself and his options. The most important of these communicate *expectations* regarding the youth's performance or attainment. . . . Models provide examples for the youth. The most influential significant others are people who are at the same time, definers with clearly articulated expectations for the youth and models who exemplify what they expect (Haller, 1969).

Both rural and urban environments provide significant others for their youth. However, as a result of the geographical and cultural isolation of rural residents, the number and influence of significant others may serve to limit rural youths' knowledge of their options. These youth, therefore, experience a more limited number of occupational roles and alternatives. And, because the better educated members of the rural population tend to migrate to urban centers, "the connection between education and the occupational structure may not be so clear. . . . The outcome is that the shared [rural] environment . . . is somewhat poorer in information which young people need in order to make satisfactory educational and occupational adjustments" (Haller, 1969).

Although role model selection in rural areas is limited for all youths, Black and White males appear to make different choices. Blacks tended to choose glamour figures and outside-the-family role models more often than Whites.

This paucity of role models accentuates the need to introduce rural youth to the occupational opportunities available to them. One such program, Vocational Information for Education and Work (VIEW), implemented in Kentucky provided learners with career information that was up-to-date, correct, and understandable.

THE RURAL SCHOOL

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Next to the home, the school is considered the major socializing force preparing youth for meeting the demands of a challenging world.

> As the occupational structure of American life has changed because of urbanization, industrialization, and technological advances, education has become increasingly important as a mode of socialization, as a mechanism for social mobility, and as an agency for providing its clients with necessary work skills (Hughes and Spence, 1971).

Rural school districts are defined here as those districts that draw student populations from farms, small cities, towns, villages or hamlets which generally do not exceed 2,500 in population. In addition, the student's place of residence is beyond a 25 mile radius of cities of 25,000 or more.

About 14 million students attend rural schools. A slight increase in the rural school population, between 1960 and 1970, appears to be a partial result of the greater availability of kindergartens (Thomas, 1974). Population sparsity is one of the controlling factors limiting the potential size of rural schools which are, therefore, often small in size.

"The mass consolidation of small schools resulted in the number of schools being substantially reduced. However, in 1971, even after the great reduction in the number of school districts, over 67 percent of the districts enrolled fewer than two thousand students" (Benson and Barber, 1974). According to McClurkin (1971), large numbers of schools cannot consolidate because of the distances involved and the terrain of the areas in which they are located.

Areas which are geographically isolated, rugged, and have poor transportation, also have, as a rule, small, inadequate school districts. Increasingly, there has been a trend toward shared services where feasible. "Fourteen states now have intermediate service units of some sort operating in their territory or have passed legislation to permit their establishment" (Pine, 1971). Generally, the impetus for the establishment of cooperative services can be assumed to be provided by external factors. "Once established, however, internal factors may be more important in determining the extent to which cooperatives become a part of the educational establishment" (NFIRE, 1974).

Although great strides have been taken to improve rural education by means of consolidation and shared services, it can be seen that the factors of geographic isolation and small size militate against these improvements.

In many ways rural schools are limited by size. On the other hand, the small rural school has definite advantages.

> Smallness, seen as a liability from one point of view, can also be a tremendous asset from another. In a small school, individualized instruction is possible and there is a closeness of students, parents, teachers, and community. It is thus also possible to keep a degree of local control. There are fewer problems of student discipline and a more relaxed, personal atmosphere which can be very favorable to learning (Loustaunau, 1975).

Rural schools are characterized by both major strengths and weaknesses. The strengths include scheduling flexibility, potential for flexibility in the curriculum, closeness of teacher-pupil relationships, teacher knowledge of student needs, and community interest in and respect for the school. Weaknesses include limited finances and facilities, student characteristics and limited capabilities, curricular deficiencies, inadequately trained professional staff (including teachers, administrators, and counselors), and sociocultural aspects (O'Fallon et al., 1974). In order to study some of these characteristics in greater detail, it is necessary to examine the influences of student attributes, staff, facilities, resources, administration and career guidance programs as they impact on the development of individuals.

Students

The rural student is not easily described. "The clientele of many small and rural schools consists of minority groups which have traditionally placed a low value on formal education (Blacks, Indians, migrant workers). Traditional educational offerings have not been meaningful or especially useful for these groups and, having served them poorly, the motivation to finish school is much lower than with other groups" (Hughes and Spence, 1971). For example,

> Thirty-one states have migratory workers numbering 4,000 or more annually. The migrant children are usually retarded in school achievement for many reasons: frequent moves, poor school attendance, lack of acceptance in some communities, lack of parental educational achievement, language barriers, lack of local enforcement of school attendance and child labor laws, need for special programs to meet their needs, lack of transportation, poorly trained teachers, and insufficient funds of some school districts (Hughes and Spence, 1971).

Migrant youngsters have been taught to conform to their particular subculture; however, these behaviors often become unacceptable in the classroom situation. Many migrant youngsters are often as much as three or four years below the grade level appropriate to their chronological age (Schnur, 1970). The lack of continuity in the migrant child's education is a serious problem. Added to this obstacle, approximately 75 percent of migrant children are Mexican American who neither speak nor understand English. For many, the hardship of even getting to school is an almost insurmountable barrier (Project 1975, 1975). Students experiencing the handicapping conditions discussed thus far are likely to have depressed self-concepts.

> The rural community, which tests below the national average in every area, is, of course, negatively affected by an inferior education which forces its population into low paying jobs and their attendant social circumstances. . . . The rural 17-year-old, in comparison with the national median percentage for acceptable answers, rates as follows: -3.7 percent in reading, -2.8 percent in writing, -9.8 percent in science, -1.3 in literature and -7.2 percent in citizenship. . . . It would appear from the NAEP assessment that it is more likely that the average rural youngster will become a migrant worker than a computer programmer, and far more likely that he will work for someone else than manage his own business or pursue a profession (Henderson, 1973).

Needs studies conducted in Appalachia have been remarkably similar. Essentially, they reveal basic skill development, career-vocational development, and improved attitude toward school as priority needs (O'Fallon, 1974).

Research indicates that there are some differences in the occupational and educational aspirations of rural youth compared with their urban counterparts and that aspirations may differ among different types of rural youth.

> The educational and occupational aspirations of rural students appear to be negatively affected by their low economic status and possibly further depressed by factors related to geographic isolation. Many rural young people who will not be able to make a satisfactory living by farming do not aspire to any higher skilled urban occupation nor to the educational level which would prepare them for such work. Possibly related to the socioeconomic status are other attitudes found among rural children which may further hinder their progress: low self-esteem, feelings of helplessness in the face of seemingly unconquerable environmental handicaps, and impoverished confidence in the value and importance of education as an answer to their problems. All of these attitudes, understandably, may contribute to the child's failure to benefit from his schooling (Edington, 1971).

A study which examined a cluster of social-psychological variables—academic motivation, self-concept, and the influence of significant others—as they intervene between other independent variables and the child's status projections found that occupational and educational status projections appear to have different paths of influence. Occupational status projections tend to be relatively independent of criteria determining life opportunities while educational projections are considerably more influenced by socioeconomic, ability, and self-evaluative factors (Butler, 1973).

The majority of farm youth will find it necessary to find employment in occupations other than farming. Likewise, many youth living in the villages and towns of rural America will find that their local communities are not able to generate employment opportunities that fulfill their expectations. "Since such a high proportion of the rural youth are destined to migrate to urban centers and work in nonfarm occupations, it is imperative that a better job be done in occupational counseling and preparation in order to rationalize migration" (Bishop, 1970).

Racial minority students present another problem for rural schools. Few rural communities outside the South have any sizable Black population. There are those, however, throughout the Southwest and elsewhere with Mexican-American populations. "There are even some where there are still obvious ethnic groups of European origin. These latter are the least likely to present problems to the community or school in the sense of radically different values or wanting great change in the system" (Gehlen, 1969).

> Cherokees are totally withdrawn from the school system of Oklahoma. Their median educational level of 5.5 school years comes about because Cherokees, on the whole, drop out of school at the earliest possible moment . . . our findings, miniscule though they are, present the obvious: that the outcome of a child's experience with the formal educational system is the sum of several types of experience—home, school, and peer group (American Anthropological Association, 1970).

Fortunately, because of their limited enrollments, rural schools are faced with few students who suffer from physically or emotionally handicapping conditions. On the other hand, rurality, by its very nature, may cause pupils to be "disadvantaged," (Edington, 1971). Bruch (1971) states that the initial problem in providing for gifted, talented, or creative children is identifying them. Consequently, very few references are made to the rural gifted.

Students in small schools experience different kinds of satisfaction in their out-of-class activities than do students in larger schools. The small school encourages the satisfactions of developing competence, of meeting challenges, and of close cooperation with peers. In large schools, satisfactions are vicarious and are connected to being a part of an imposing institution (O'Fallon et al., 1974).

Rural students who graduate from high school are less likely to plan to attend college than those who live in larger communities; and farm youth are less likely than nonfarm youth to pursue college plans (Hughes and Spence, 1971).

The literature suggests that many rural students are less academically oriented, somewhat less able, and considerably less convinced of the value of higher education than urban students. When compared to the national standard, rural students fall below average in educational achievement and in average years of schooling (Griessman and Densley, 1969).

Major advantages to students in the smaller rural school are the potential for individualized learning experiences and the kind of interpersonal relationships which can be realized.

Facilities

In the rural setting, the school building frequently serves a variety of purposes. It is ". . . one of the few, if not the only community organization that has widespread contact within the community and with which most of the community members identify. It functions as a symbol of community enterprise and pride. In a very real sense of the word, the school often serves as a community center as well as a school" (Gehlen, 1969).

For this reason planning requirements for small school facilities need to emphasize the importance of seizing every available opportunity to build flexibility into the physical plant, Davis and McQueen (1969).

Broady and Broady (1969) state that the following principles have proved to be valid in planning a small school:

1. Flexibility
2. Planned for use of whole community and not for school age population alone
3. Areas for large and small groups
4. Possibility for expansion.

> It probably is true that the smaller the school the more likely it is to be drab, uninviting, and aesthetically desolate. Until the school is large enough to justify regular custodial and maintenance service and administrative supervision, the physical-plant services are likely to mitigate against good educational service. . . . Rural schools are still found with outdoor privies, water supplied by a shallow well fixture pump in the school yard, and no artificial lighting. . . . The notorious deficiencies in many small schools stem from a lack of understanding

> of what good school facilities are, lack of financial resources to underwrite the higher costs, and lack of enough students to justify the expense and afford adequate utilization for desired facility services such as library rooms, multipurpose rooms, playrooms, and auditoriums (McClurkin, 1970).

Rural schools generally have inadequate equipment, libraries, and laboratory facilities. Some rural schools have equipped buses with learning materials—an audio-tape deck, for example—to provide educational experiences for students who must travel long distances (White, 1975; Loustaunau, 1975).

The trend toward utilization of mobile learning facilities is accelerating. Self-propelled laboratories for service to migrant children is part of this trend. In the absence of adequate buildings, portable facilities are also frequently used in remote areas (Uxer and Benson, 1971).

Resources

There is considerable variation among rural school districts. Some are relatively affluent with a clientele that has both the ability and desire to make substantial investments in its educational system. These districts have high income from agriculture, mining, or timber. Other school districts serve substantial areas of poverty with, for the most part, underfinanced schools (White, 1975).

> The most common sources of finances for education are property and sales taxes. Wherever allocation of funds is based on local property tax collections, schools in districts of poor housing and low evaluation wind up with short budgets. They cannot provide programs and services comparable to those of schools in districts of highly-assessed residential, business, or industrial property (White, 1975).

Generally, the per-pupil cost in small schools is much higher than in large schools (Edington and Stans, 1973). The most important single factor causing the high per-pupil costs is the relatively high ratio of professionals to students. This factor is more pronounced at the secondary school level.

Another contributing factor is the cost of pupil transportation. In many sparsely settled areas, distances are great, and buses operate well below total capacity. State aid often does not cover the full costs of transportation, and the rural school districts must pay the difference from funds that would otherwise be available for other purposes. In contrast to these high per-pupil costs in rural communities, per-pupil expenditures for instruction are lower, on the average, than in urban areas (Thomas, 1974).

Small schools also tend to have a shortage of resources other than dollars. One of the major problems in a small school is that of having a sufficiently large number of students to justify offering a wide range of courses or programs (Wasden, 1970). For example, kindergarten programs are noticeably absent in many rural schools.

The resource inadequacies which characterize many rural school systems result in low salaries for staff members and limited programs for students. ". . . shortage of funds tend to produce constraints on the services which are available to students. Hence, counseling services are often meager or nonexistent, while vocational programs are seldom sufficient to prepare students for finding jobs in our complex industrial society" (Thomas, 1974).

Robinson (1973) supports the finding that guidance programs are lacking:

> In the rural schools where there is seldom any professional guidance personnel to assist students with their in-school and post-school planning, there is a great need to coordinate the human resources of the school with those of the community or region, to bring career information to students. . . . Professional guidance services do not exist at these schools and the absence of guidance services leaves students with no established person or program from which to receive career information.

Rural schools provide little attention to special students with particular needs, such as the disadvantaged, handicapped, or gifted. The small number of students involved makes it virtually impossible to provide the comprehensive services these students require (Benson and Barber, 1974).

Staff

Rural teachers' educational attainment is one to two years less than that of their urban counterparts (Hughes and Spence, 1971).

> By and large the faculty of the small school can be expected to be politically, and, probably, educationally conservative. Part of this is due to the oft-mentioned habit of small communities to hire "safe" teachers when at all possible, "safe" meaning those whose values and habits are generally in line with those of the community itself. Often this practice is reflected in giving preference to teachers who are from the community originally (Gehlen, 1969).

The nature of political and educational conservatism results in a staff that is characterized by resistance to change. "Teachers in rural settings appear to be 'here and now' oriented. Discontent may not be characteristic of teachers in rural areas, and this may have implications in relation to efforts for change" (Hughes and Spence, 1971).

According to Edington and Stans (1973), teacher quality may be linked to two factors beyond the immediate control of the school administration: (1) program deficiencies in the institutions involved in preparation of teachers, and (2) shortcomings in the local socioeconomic environment which preclude the recruitment and retention of high-quality teachers.

> Staffing the rural school with persons who are temporary, such as the wives of military personnel or graduate students, increases the probability that the schools are hiring persons who are not adequately prepared to teach under rural conditions. Thus the rural schools are faced with staffing problems resulting from inadequate preparation, impermanence of service, and unenthusiastic performance (Benson and Barber, 1974).

In addition, many high-quality teachers are reluctant to teach in a rural community. "Because of the disadvantages of lower pay, isolation, restricted cultural and entertainment-oriented opportunities, as well as study and professional growth provisions, teachers prefer urban school employment" (Benson and Barber, 1974).

Rural school teachers are in a favorable position to know the attitudes of the community and the backgrounds of their students. The potential for good interpersonal relationships between the teacher and the student is enhanced by small size of the school. Therefore, school personnel can capitalize on these relationships and on the knowledge of students which many faculty members have.

Teacher-counselors or part-time counselors frequently represent the only source of specialized student personnel service available. In addition to teaching and maintaining the school guidance services, the rural school counselor often finds himself/herself acting as a nurse, social worker, and psychologist (Sweeney, 1971). With this diversified role, there is also little opportunity for professional development.

> Most small or rural school counselors typically have little opportunity to exchange ideas with other counselors or professionals and have little or no access to the means for professional growth, particularly in terms of what is happening in the field currently. . . . Inservice education is especially important to rural schools which do not have the nearby facilities that their larger and urban counterparts do. Inservice education helps keep staff members up to date and gives them a chance to hear about methods which are working for others (DeBlassie and Ludeman, 1973).

Career Guidance Programs

> Guidance programs have been initiated and implemented more frequently by large urban schools than by small and/or rural schools. Providing guidance and pupil personnel programs has been relatively easy in many large schools, but impossible in most small and rural ones. However, the need for these programs is the same regardless of the location or size of school, for every student should have access to an appropriate educational program (DeBlassie and Ludeman, 1973).

Bottoms (1970) presents several major problems which prevent many rural youth from receiving an adequate career orientation and occupational education program. Some of these problems follow:

1. Lack of local commitment to prepare rural youth for employment beyond the local setting.
2. Lack of resources to provide a broad range of secondary and post-secondary vocational offerings.
3. An inadequate program design to maximize existing school and community resources for career orientation and occupational preparation.
4. A lack of knowledge by existing school staff about careers and the ways in which youth can be exposed to a wide range of careers.

Guidance counselors are frequently not available to students in small high schools. In those which have full or part-time counselors, a student-counselor ratio of 340:1 is average. Only 44 percent of small high schools in Massachusetts employ full-time counselors; 9 percent report only part-time counselors; and the remaining 47 percent, no counselors (Massachusetts State Board of Education, 1968). This lack of school counseling services available to rural adolescents leads to a lack of information and lack of encouragement from school personnel which, in turn, leads to inabilities to formulate and realize meaningful personal goals (Henderson, 1973).

Another serious handicap is the lack of continuity in guidance programs. This shortcoming may be caused by the lack of a professionally prepared and experienced counselor, or insufficient resources. "The more rural the area the greater the need for counseling and guidance services but the less likely services will be available" (Griessman and Densley, 1969).

Even though modest advances have been made in providing career guidance programs to rural youth, these efforts are few and far between. For example,

> Among the few areas in the United States attempting to provide the necessary guidance services is Cochise County, Arizona. Through use of computer terminals and shared services, a well rounded guidance program is being provided in many of their secondary schools (Wilson, 1970).
>
> High schools in Mesquite, Nevada, and Patagonia, Arizona, have been involved in a career selection program developed by the Western States Small School Project. The program uses community resources, coordinated with guidance services to aid students in making realistic career selections (Loustaunau, 1975).

The lack of planning for the systematic delivery of career guidance programs in the rural setting is still painfully evident. Adequate guidance programs are characterized by a close relationship between the school and community. If the attitudes and desires of the home are not understood, the chances of providing satisfactory educational programs are reduced (Broady and Broady, 1974).

"School holding power in rural areas will improve when administrators, teachers, and counselors work together and strive to involve the parents of potential dropouts" (Griessman and Densley, 1969).

> Rural schools do not readily adjust educational objectives or methods in the light of new information and needs. Traditional college preparation courses are emphasized, even though comparatively few students attend liberal arts colleges. Information is transmitted in the traditional teacher-talk verbal patterns. Curriculum emphasis on symbolic knowledge, rather than on the real world of people and things, results in experiences which most rural students regard as irrelevant, obsolete, and ineffective. Thus, as many as 85 percent of rural students do not find rural education pertinent to their needs, and consequently, do not succeed in the school environment (Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1972).

White (1975) states that ". . . rural schools can be held accountable for offering educational programs that prepare some students for jobs in the community, some for continuing education in colleges or vocational schools, and others for the transition to working and living in a city."

Administration

Rural communities have generally resisted consolidation and held onto local control of their schools. It is anticipated that rural school districts will continue to battle further consolidation and threats against local autonomy through increased cooperation and shared services with other schools (NFIRE, 1974).

The small or rural community is typified by a monolithic power structure. "With a definite power structure it is relatively easy to anticipate the positions that are likely to be taken and to organize the schools to meet the preferences" (Hughes and Spence, 1971).

Although local boards of education are delegated the authority to determine policies, they seldom risk raising the ire of the local power structure (Hughes and Spence, 1971). "The suggestion of the existing literature seems to be that in very small communities the notion of a definite power structure which is generally tied in with local business and conservative in outlook is a likely reality" (Gehlen, 1969).

The superintendent's role is somewhat different in the rural setting than in the large city.

> The superintendent is responsible for managing what is often the biggest single enterprise in a rural community. Efficient, well-trained administrators sometimes fail as rural school superintendents because their ideas do not meet the needs of the community and they move too fast to implement them. . . . The quality of education in a rural school depends greatly on the leadership of the superintendent in guiding his professional staff, working with the community, and promoting programs that meet the changing needs and interests of students (White, 1975).

The school board is generally conservative and in attempting to placate the board, the principal of a rural school frequently resists allowing teachers and students academic freedom. Often, the rural principal must provide guidance services and, in small systems, they must sometimes double as teachers (Henderson, 1973).

White has identified the need of accountability in rural education. However, because of the demands of their position, principals and administrators are frequently unable to provide the direction required.

> Rural communities have a long standing tradition of holding out for local control of their schools. Since accountability centers on community at the local level, it puts the responsibility for rural schools right where they have wanted it. . . . Accountability is a challenge to change—to search for and try new educational programs and approaches to increase learning opportunities. Rural schools can be accountable for developing community leadership to work with administrators and teachers to determine present and future educational goals for rural children (White, 1975).

5

THE RURAL COMMUNITY

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The third facet of the shared environment is the rural community. This component enters into dynamic interaction with the influences of the home and school to foster the career development of rural youth.

Location

Statistics generated from the 1970 census indicate that 26.5 percent of the total United States population is rural and is most heavily concentrated in the South. Over twenty-two million rural inhabitants are located in sixteen southern states; sixteen million reside in twelve north central states; over nine million reside in nine northeastern states; and almost six million in thirteen western states.

The urban-rural definition adopted for the 1970 census identified urban population as all persons living in (1) places of 2,500 inhabitants or more, incorporated as cities, boroughs, and villages and towns except towns in New England, New York, and Wisconsin; (2) the densely settled urban fringe, including both incorporated and unincorporated areas, around cities of 50,000 or more; and (3) unincorporated places of 2,500 inhabitants or more outside any urban fringe. The remaining population is classified as rural (Bureau of the Census, 1971).

Population

Between 1960 and 1970 the rural population decreased in size in every region of the United States except in the Northeast which showed an increase of 8.5 percent. The total rural population showed a 0.3 percent decrease in size. Although declining, the rural population still exceeds the combined popualtion of America's 100 largest cities. It is large enough so that rural America may be classified as the world's ninth largest country (Rural Education News, 1970). Of all persons under the age of twenty-five in the Southwest, 14.10 percent are rural youth. The median age of the Spanish heritage person in Texas is 18.5 (Piña, 1975). In New Mexico, rural Spanish heritage youth represent over 50 percent of all rural youth (Jimenez and Upham, 1974).

General Economy

Although nearly 30 percent of the nation's population lives in rural areas, 40 percent of the nation's poor lives there (Loustaunau, 1975).

> While rural poverty exists mostly in the South, it is present throughout the nation. Rural poverty is especially acute among the predominately White population living

> in the Southwest and among the Blacks living in particular sections of the South. Agricultural migrants, sharecroppers, farm workers, and rural industrial workers also feel the constraints of poverty (Project 1975, 1975).

Recent technological changes have necessitated various forms of adaptation among rural communities. According to Griessman and Densley (1969), the occupational and industrial composition of the rural labor force has been substantially altered in recent years as follows:

1. Extractive industries have declined,
2. Manufacturing and trades and services have sharply increased,
3. Other industries have increased somewhat, and
4. All other major occupations have increased.

Many rural people are turning to agribusiness which has to do with the manufacture and distribution of farm supplies, plus the processing, handling, merchandising, and marketing of food and agricultural products, and includes farming itself as well as services such as those of veterinarians. In 1960 farm operator families received 42 percent of their total income from off-farm sources. In 1968 the rural nonfarm population comprised approximately 80 percent of the rural population (U.S. Department of Labor, 1971). Industries which choose to relocate in rural communities are low-paying, slow-growth (in terms of employment) industries, and hire locals for unskilled or semi-skilled labor at the minimum wage (U.S. Department of Labor, 1971).

Agricultural mechanization and heightened productivity have decreased employment opportunities in rural areas (U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1971). The decrease in employment opportunities is largely responsible for gross outmigration and the resultant decline in popualtion. The decrease in population as well as the erosion of local taxable wealth contributes to the ineffectiveness of rural community agencies and institutions in serving the citizens' needs.

> In many rural poor areas, local governments, schools and churches are dying from lack of support. And as local facilities and services continue to decline, the chances for redevelopment diminish. At the same time, however, rural communities and residents are demanding the same kinds of services as those offered in the cities (Hughes and Spence, 1971).

White (1975) indicated that though the contribution rural communities make toward the support of their schools is proportionately greater than that made by their city counterparts, it is still not adequate for the support of the broad general and vocational education programs and services found in large cities or consolidated rural schools.

There is, on the parts of many rural communities, a reluctance to finance what are considered in that setting the "friils" of an educational program such as music, athletics, counseling programs, and foreign languages (Gehlen, 1969). Senior citizens, who make up a large segment of many rural populations, are not sympathetic toward modern educational methods and consequently are not eager to support school bond issues for the upgrading and expansion of educational programs and services (White, 1975).

Employment Opportunities

One of the reasons for the heavy outmigration which rural areas have recently experienced is a shortage of employment opportunities. This is due to the fact that there has been a rapid change in the size of the farm that is necessary to adequately support a family. During the 1950's a farm which provided an income of $10,000 was adequate. It was estimated that a farm this size would become available for each ten farm males who were potential farmers. By the mid 1960's income needed had increased to $15,000, and the availability of a farm this size was limited to one in twelve farm males who were potential farmers (Bishop, 1970).

Another reason for low employment opportunities is that rural industries and businesses have too few jobs to accommodate the number of children that rural schools educate. Additionally, the majority of those jobs which are available are for semi-skilled or unskilled persons and are very low paying.

In 1970, Sussex County, Delaware, was an example of a rural county whose youth could not find jobs after high school that were stimulating or that challenged them to learn or to acquire new skills. The young people were leaving Sussex County to work and/or attend school in the metropolitan areas. There was also nothing to bring them back home after graduating from college (Astarita, 1973).

The expressed feeling of several writers (Loustaunau, 1975; Edington, 1973; DeBlassie and Ludeman, 1973; Bishop, 1970) is that the rural school is responsible for creating programs to prepare students for living in rural communities and for what life would be like for them should they migrate to metropolitan areas. Therefore, students need guidance programs which will help make them aware of career alternatives both in rural and metropolitan communities. Such a comprehensive program was introduced in Hamlin, West Virginia for grades 1-10 (Loustaunau, 1975).

Hilverda and Slocum (1970) believe that in small schools the vocational guidance program is customarily organized and implemented in a rather haphazard manner resulting in failures in the information aspect of counseling and guidance. Exemplary projects in Kentucky, New Mexico, Arizona, Maine, South Carolina, and North Dakota are taking steps to overcome this failing in counseling and guidance (DeBlassie and Ludeman, 1973).

School-Community Involvement

The regard in which the community holds the school and the role the school plays in the life of the community are often directly proportional to the degree of community support in terms of financing as well as participation and encouragement which the school receives. Many rural communities regard the school as the focus for a variety of community activities as well as adult education, if such a program exists. In some rural communities where funds are, of necessity, limited, members of the community serve important functions as paraprofessionals in the schools (Loustaunau, 1975). Involvement in the school heightens the feelings of the community toward the school's role as well as its needs.

There appears to be general agreement as to the importance of community awareness and support of the rural school (Gehlen, 1969; Edington, 1973; Loustaunau, 1975; White, 1975). This support is deemed necessary if the schools are to become dynamic forces in the community and to meet the changing needs of rural youth. However, the literature appears to lack specific examples of community support for schools in rural areas.

Leadership

Rural communities generally lack the range of educated and skilled personnel to operate on the pluralistic basis of everyone's being involved, however limitedly, in the leadership of the community. A monolithic power structure frequently found in rural communities usually resists efforts to change existing conditions not in its own best interests.

Evidence in the literature suggests that monolithic power structures are tied in with local business and are conservative in outlook (Gehlen, 1969). Teachers and superintendents usually do not enjoy the power of the lesser educated but more affluent business leader. However, when superintendents do enjoy the confidence of the public, and when their policies as well as those of the school district are compatible with those of the community, they experience a great deal of autonomy (Hughes and Spence, 1971).

Frequently, communities allege an active involvement in decision making, but closer scrutiny reveals that the community leadership was co-opted for the school's purposes or the community was manipulated for same (Moe and Tamblyn, 1974).

Minority residents of rural areas and small towns have historically exerted very little pressure to effect change in school programs on their own behalf or that of their children (Gehlen, 1969). "However, there is some developing evidence that in some areas the traditional power structure is being threatened by understructure groups which have developed a high potential for unity" (Hughes and Spence, 1971).

[EDITOR'S NOTE: It may appear to the reader that the preceding sections on the rural home, school, and community present a somewhat negative picture of Rural America. While this was not the intent, the authors needed to focus more on limitations than on strengths in order to establish a base for the development of constructive materials. Before one can propose exemplary ways of planning, developing and implementing a comprehensive career guidance program, it is necessary to perceive the unique characteristics of the user audience. It is hoped that the project materials will reflect ideas and techniques that not only expand the limits of the rural community, but also build upon its strengths.]

RURAL ATTITUDES AND VALUES

Walter Stein

Experience and research indicate that the communicators of attitudes and values to rural youth are adults—parents, teachers, and community members. Carlson et al. (1972) confirm that student values are the result of influence by parents, teachers, associates, experiences, and environments. Further, such communication is received and influence made by an early age. Brady and Brown (1973) indicate that both boys and girls may be far more vocationally mature at the ages of 8 to 10 than theorists and educators may realize. Kalunian et al. (1973) reinforce Brady and Brown noting that the pattern of sex stereotyping and concepts of traditional social roles are very strong by the fifth grade. These findings lead to the inescapable conclusion that the various adults in the child's world communicate, or impose, values upon youth at a very early age.

Cooker (1973) tells us that in order to assure maximum development of the valuing process in regard to occupations, schools cannot afford to wait until the higher grades to begin to provide experiences designed to aid children in the critical examination of values.

Harris (1973) has stated that attitudes and values toward career decision making are most commonly shaped by the home and its socioeconomic status. A second source of values inculcation, especially in the earlier years of youth, appears to be the school. The third source is the community at large.

Students' career decisions are not made solely on the basis of the individual's subjective values nor on objective data. Accepting the above postulate, the question then becomes, "What else influences the young persons' attitudes and values toward career decision making?" It is known that parents, school staff, and the community-at-large influence attitudes and values toward career decisions. It is imperative that guidance personnel obtain increased knowledge of adult values and know how relevant they are in terms of today's society. As a corollary, it is important, if not vital, to sound career decision making for the school, in general, and for the counselor, in particular, to work with the three adult groups to clarify attitudes and values related to career decisions.

The literature gives little direction in working with rural adults in the area of attitudes and values identification and communication to youth. Most of the literature is concerned with changing the attitudes and values of youth without regard to the source of such attitudes and values. This, it would seem, is a case of treating the symptoms without treating the root cause of the problem.

Considering all of the needs, attitudes, values, and challenges of youth, a systematized integrated program designed to impact on present attitudes and values and aimed at the entire rural community seems vital to successful career guidance. Without an understanding of youth/adult value systems, career guidance programs will falter. Further, adult, staff, and community values toward career life role options need to undergo change *at least* as much as do student values toward work and careers in general. The adult value system needs to be expanded if it is to provide objective counseling and guidance to youth.

Bearing in mind that our focus is upon rural populations, consideration will be given to the following rural groups: adults, youth, women, minorities, poor and disadvantaged, and school staff.

Rural Adults

Napier (1973) raises the question of whether real differences exist between people in rural and urban areas. On a study of eight variables—community identification, community satisfaction, physical mobility, educational commitment, familism, socioeconomic status, value orientation, and alienation from the local community—the following conclusions were reached:

1. Rural-urban differences do exist in terms of attitudinal variables. Differences were in degree rather than basically polarized positions.

2. Such differences are being eroded by time.

Edington (1971) on the other hand, tells us that rurality is, in and of itself, a disadvantagement. This would seem to constitute an opinion in direct opposition to the conclusions of Napier. It seems obvious, however, that rural youth are disadvantaged at least in the opportunity to explore and experience, at first hand, a variety of careers since most rural communities are one- or two-industry areas. Greenburg (1971) speaks of a need for a re-education program for parents as influencers of occupational choice. She places responsibility upon the counselor for providing data to parents relative to changes in occupational opportunities, particularly for women.

Kalunian et al. (1973) suggest "consciousness raising" groups to enable adults to:

1. Study the influence that their ideas and behaviors have on children

2. Recognize that adults serve as role models and strive to make these role models more positive

3. Study their attitudes toward sex roles, male-female differences, and the changing world of work

4. Recognize the important influence that the above factors have on the attitudes of and decisions made by children.

They identify a three-step process: increasing awareness, reconditioning role perceptions, and developing new attitudes.

The most far-reaching systematic approach found was outlined by Bank and Brooks (1971). They suggest a discussion series which could enable parents to:

1. Understand the developmental needs of children (audiovisual approach);

2. Understand the pressures of the present day on children (speakers from community, state, and federal organizations);

3. Help their children to become more efficient managers of time (speakers, field trips);

4. Be aware of realities of today's educational system (reading and testing specialists, administration and teachers);

5. Be involved with representatives of local community government (city or town council members); and

6. Be familiar with vocational development techniques to disseminate occupational information (career word games, audiovisual techniques, and field trips).

Rural Youth

The attitudes held by youth in general lead them to:

1. Desire to counteract the growing objectification of people.

2. Recognize the falseness of the assumption of a society that consumes but does not replace.

3. Question how one lives in a post-industrial society (Klingelhofer, 1973).

One need not catalogue all of the areas of life where changing attitudes and values have affected our young people; for the most part, this has been done by Tofler (1970) and others.

Somehow, in the area of career decision making, we are faced with a dichotomy. Klingelhofer (1973) points out that in many ways we have had a redefinition of work. As a result college graduates and dropouts seek to carve out new occupations rather than be trapped by the system. On the one hand, we see young people avoiding establishment's criteria for success: a high paying job, the proper address, and membership in prestigious professional, community, and religious groups. They opt, instead, for occupations with a heavy human service component. Even those entering the highly paid professions appear to emphasize the human service aspect of their work rather than financial rewards.

On the other hand, despite the desire to become more humanistically oriented, rural students are strongly influenced to accept the attitudes and values held by the three sets of adults previously mentioned.

Despite recognition of the influence of adults—parents in particular—upon student attitudes and values toward career decisions, few systematic approaches to working with adult groups in the area of attitudes and values have evolved. Mannebach and Stilwell (1974) present as a system goal in installing career education: the specification of attitude changes needed to support program implementation.

Although the concepts of career education are rooted deeply in society—historically, sociologically, and legislatively—the fact remains that we still need a viable, structured, systematic approach to influencing, liberalizing, and modifying the values and attitudes of adults in the rural community. To date, such a comprehensive program has not been established.

Healy (1974) tells us that for an individual's career development, to be successful, it requires each person to attain such attitudes as:

1. Self-direction of his/her careers (a sense of agency)

2. A feeling of self-esteem

3. A willingness to seek career information

These are direct challenges to career guidnace personnel.

Craven and Muraski (1974) discuss student self-analysis in terms of six basic factors determining: (1) interests, (2) abilities and aptitudes, (3) personality, (4) values, (5) limitations, and (6) lifestyle. They conclude that, as a result of career information and self-analysis, students may be able to identify a fulfilling and satisfying lifetime occupation.

Haccoun and Campbell (1972a, 1972b) report work entry problems of youth and intervention strategies relevant to these problems. On-the-job performance problems related to responsiblity, maturity, attitudes, values, work habits, peer and supervisory adjustment, self-image, and communication problems are reported. The authors noted that successful entry into the labor force involves more than marketable skills. Adjustment behaviors related to work attitudes, work habits, and unrealistic aspirations are also important. Major intervention strategies discussed are programmed instruction, sensitivity training, gaming techniques, role playing, modeling, placement programs, job hunting courses, and assessing job readiness.

Rural Women

There has been little research sited that reflects the unique characteristics, needs, and desires of women in rural America. The following represents general impressions found in the literature reflecting the total female population.

Vetter (1970) investigated the attitudes and future plans of junior and senior high school girls. Her results showed that:

1. As grade level advanced there was an increase in expectation to work after marriage,
2. 90 percent of the girls indicated plans for some employment,
3. There was a decline in occupational aspirations with advancing grade levels,
4. There was an increasing percentage of girls who plan no further education after high school with advancing grade level.

Olive (1973) reports that when male and female adolescents were asked to choose "any occupation they might like to enter," females chose higher social class status occupations than did males. However, they did not aspire to the most prestigious jobs in these occupations. She concludes that vocational guidance with females remains more complex than with males. There is a need to reflect newer, more open role models.

Brady and Brown (1973) administered Galler's Occupational Choice Essay Form (GOCEF) to 8- and 10-year olds to elicit a choice of job title and reasons for choice. Among their findings were the following:

1. Girls have already occupationally limited themselves by age 8.
2. Both 8- and 10-year old girls concentrate occupational aspirations on nurturant and passive sex-typed occupational roles.

3. Elementary school counselors can be change agents by broadening the vocational horizons for girls.

Vetter (1970) points out the following implications for career guidance:

1. There is a need for information about the variety of occupational options available.

2. Occupational counseling should begin in the early school years and continue through the secondary grades.

3. A study of the attitudes of teachers and counselors with respect to the changing role of women is needed.

Greenberg (1971) challenges the counselor to have available information concerning change in women's opportunities.

Rural Minorities

The literature offers few insights concerning the communication of attitudes and values to minority youth who are not also poor or disadvantaged. Edington (1971) states that among rural minorities, the school's influence, as a positive force, tends to diminish with the students age as measured by school-based instruments. There seem to be many stereotypes of how rural minorities value work and their attitudes toward careers. For example, Robertson et al. (1975) point out that ethnic and poverty children are channeled into non-professional, non-prestigious jobs at an early age. They suggest a staff development program to assist in identifying and changing stereotypes held by school personnel, thereby increasing occupational potential for students.

Much of the next section is also applicable to rural minorities who frequently are poor and disadvantaged.

Rural Poor and Disadvantaged

Morrison and Phillips (1970) based upon sociological interviews with poor families, list among their major impressions of the values and attitudes of rural poor populations the following:

1. Rural poor rationalize the advantages of rural living.

2. They believe stereotypes of the disadvantages of city living.

3. They suffer frustration and discontent with their economic situation and the lack of mobility to leave that situation.

4. There is an implicit fear that their children will not reach their aspirations.

5. They feel that they have little useable knowledge of the way our social system operates.

6. They fail to protest and seek aid from public agencies.

7. Almost all of their energies go into surviving.

Morrison and Phillips conclude that there is need for programs to educate, motivate, and train the rural poor to cope with the above.

Lyle (1971) sees a need to create a favorable attitude in marginal rural students, slow learners, and socioeconomically disadvantaged students regarding the value of education and its contribution to the world of work.

Rural School Staff

Bank and Brooks (1971) identify one of the counselor's major priorities as becoming actively involved with the significant adults in the lives of children—mainly the parents. Parents must become active participants in the guidance program. Systematic programs should be developed in order to maintain continual communication with parents.

Carr (1974), after a study of fifty secondary teachers' and fifty university students' reactions to a Career Education Survey, concludes, "Functioning teachers within the public schools assumed the more skeptical position in relation to career education." The study shows a clear need for in-service education of staff, not only in terms of attitudes and values toward careers, but toward the entire career education concept.

Baker (1973) describes a strategy for working with counselors to provide practical experience in the world of work. This strategy is a two-week workshop for counselors. During the first week the central activity is a blue-collar work experience for participants. The second week involves counselors in activities that relate this work experience to their own counseling careers.

Robertson et al. (1975) suggest a staff awareness program to increase and/or broaden the expectations of teachers toward the career potentials of all students irrespective of their sex, ethnic background, or socioeconomic status.

Rural students are disadvantaged in terms of a broader range of attitudes, values, and role models from which to choose. The problem, then, seems to be to provide access to these broader ranges for rural students through staff development and increased community participation.

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PART II

CAREER GUIDANCE IN RURAL SCHOOLS

CAREER GUIDANCE PROGRAM

PLANNING–IMPLEMENTATION

Mary Korfhage

> Planning . . . is only concerned with determining *what* is to be done so that practical implementing decisions may be made later. Planning is a process for determining "where to go" and identifying the requirements for getting there in the most effective and efficient manner possible (Kaufman, 1972).
>
> Planning does not portend to impose certainty or control on environmental variables.
>
> If planning is conceived as a rigid, unswerving plotting of all future activities, it is doomed to failure at the outset. Planners must predict and project, based upon the most valid and comprehensive data available. Although the plan attempts to foresee the effects of indicated actions, allowances must be made for the variables and unknown which will inevitably affect the anticipated outcomes (Iowa, 1974).

Planning is especially important for school programs in rural areas. It is critical because resources are limited. Limitations of human resources (Loustaunau, 1975), financial resources and facilities (White, 1975) and staff and curricula (Thomas, 1974) plague rural areas. The need to plan in rural areas is accompanied by forces which appear to militate against systematic planning and others which could be mobilized to support it.

On the negative side, Hughes and Spence (1971) describe rural teachers as here-and-now oriented, suggesting a lack of interest in future-oriented planning. Bottoms (1970) notes a "lack of local commitment to prepare youth for employment beyond the local setting" on the part of rural residents and educators. High student-to-counselor ratios reported by the Massachusetts State Board of Education (1968) leave little free time for counselors to participate in planning activities. Similarly, White (1975) identifies the lack of planning time available to principals as a problem in the rural school. Finally, fear of upsetting local power structures (Hughes and Spence, 1971) may serve to discourage comprehensive planning.

However, strengths of the rural school--close teacher-pupil relations, teacher knowledge of student needs, and community interest and respect (O'Fallon et al., 1974)—suggest that rural residents would, if asked, willingly devote time and energy to the planning process.

There is no single, best way to plan. Models/methods of planning have been forwarded by many (Cook, 1971; Wall, 1972; Brieve et al., 1973; Mannebach and Stilwell, 1974; Iowa, 1974; California, 1975).

Cook (1971) argues for a "management cycle or process" consisting of (1) establishing objectives, (2) developing plans, (3) establishing schedules, (4) measuring progress, and (5) making decisions and taking action.

Wall (1972) suggest the following steps: (1) evaluation, (2) problem definition or elaboration, (3) determining alternative approaches or solutions, (4) data gathering and analyzing information, (5) selecting the best alternatives from among all recognized possibilities, (6) programming and budgeting decisions, and (7) control, coordination, and adjustment.

The planning format developed by the Iowa State Department of Education (1974) includes the processes of (1) determining human and economic needs, (2) ascertaining current resources, (3) comparing the needs profile with the resource inventory to determine the extent to which needs are being met, (4) projecting needed additional resources to fulfill unmet needs, (5) identifying alternatives, (6) identifying constraints, (7) establishing objectives, (8) developing short- and long-range plans, and (9) developing a comprehensive evaluation system.

Similarly, the California State Department of Education (1975) suggests (1) assessing needs, (2) stating goals and objectives, (3) developing strategies, and (4) planning evaluation.

Hull and McCaslin (1975) designed a planning model for change advocates, primarily at the local level, which includes the following steps: (1) establish incremental objectives, (2) profile influential elements, (3) select appropriate installation tactics, (4) implement, and (5) evaluate.

Brieve et al. (1973) list the following as elements of the planning process: (1) delimit the planning arena, (2) establish goals, (3) assess needs, (4) identify resources and restraints, (5) formulate performance objectives and priorities, (6) generate alternatives, (7) analyze alternatives, (8) select alternatives, (9) develop and implement process objectives, (10) evaluate process and performance, and (11) modify the system.

Mannebach and Stilwell (1974) address the installation of career education programs in their planning approach. This approach includes (1) involve and orient key groups, (2) analyze educational system (needs assessment), (3) define goals, (4) select/create career education program, (5) prepare for program installation, (6) implement career education program, and (7) evaluate career education program.

Although each of the models outlined above varies slightly from its companions, their similarities predominate. These are the cyclic and ever-interacting phases of problem identification and resolution. Specifically,

Problem Identification

1. Needs assessment
2. Goal and objective articulation
3. Method and resource identification

Problem Resolution

4. Strategy development and programming
5. Implementation
6. Evaluation

Figure 1 depicts a general planning-implementation cycle for problem identification and resolution. Although the graphic portrayal is one of sequential activity, the processes interact. In addition, no entry point is specified and no exit is provided.

> Planning is continuous, evolving and dynamic (Iowa, 1974).

> In actuality, the process can be entered into at almost any step. However, the consensus among most persons seems to be that the *Evaluation* step should be the point of entry into the cycle. This is the step where planners, and others desiring to effect change, take a look at "what is". . . . Although this initial evaluation may not be as comprehensive as desired, it will serve to either tentatively justify the program as it exists or point up problems that need attention. The important thing to remember is that the process has been entered into, and if there is an aspect of it that is perpetual or continuous, it is the step called evaluation (Wall, 1972).

Various evluation procedures have been articulated, but the particular design selected for use must be chosen in light of local conditions, e.g., the nature and scope of the program to be evaluated, the anticipated use of evaluation data, and the constraints of human and fiscal resources.

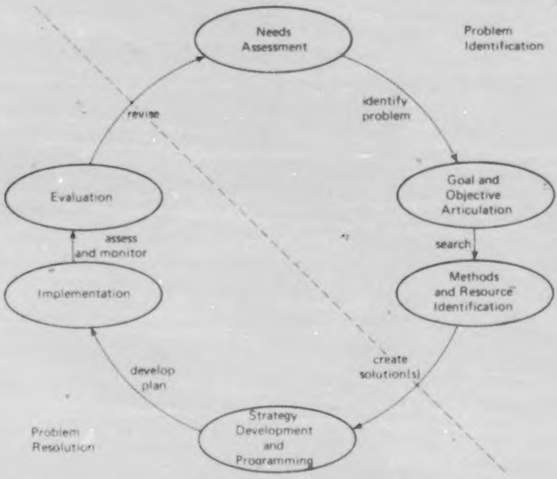
Assuming that the planning-implementation cycle has begun with an evaluation, however, cursory, a procedure to identify specific needs should be invoked. The purpose of such an assessment is the identification of educational needs: "the measurable discrepancy between 'where we are now' and 'where we should be,' in terms of outcomes or results" (Kaufman, 1972). Further, it encourages identification of the problem under consideration, not just its symptoms.

Ideally, a needs assessment is characterized by the following:

1. The data must represent the actual world of learners and related people, both as it exists now and as it will, could, or should exist in the future.

FIGURE 1

Planning-Implementation Cycle


Needs Assessment
Problem Identification
identify problem
revise
Evaluation
Goal and Objective Articulation
assess and monitor
search
Implementation
Methods and Resource Identification
develop plan
create solution(s)
Problem Resolution
Strategy Development and Programming

2. No needs determination is final and complete; we must realize that any statement of need is in fact tentative, and we should constantly question the validity of our needs statements.

3. The discrepancies should be identified in terms of products or actual behaviors (ends), not in terms of processes (or means) (Kaufman, 1972).

Needs assessment models are nearly as numerous as those for evaluation. Kaufman (1972) outlines the following steps:

1. Decide to plan;

2. Identify problem symptoms or obtain a request for a needs assessment the educational agency;

3. Identify the domain for planning;

4. Identify possible needs assessment tools and procedures and select the best ones;

5. Determine the existing condition for all the partners;

6. Determine required conditions;

7. Reconcile any discrepancies among partner's viewpoints;

8. Place priorities among the discrepancies and select; and

9. Make sure the needs assessment is a continuing process.

The Iowa Department of Public Instruction (1974) suggests a needs assessment procedure which capitalizes on already existing information—census reports, publications of the Employment Security Commission and locally collected demographic data.

The needs assessment plan developed by the Ohio State Department of Education, Division of Planning and Evaluation (n.d.) emphasizes community participation and original data collection. This publication, *Needs Assessment Guidelines,* outlines a needs assessment procedure for school districts. Its eight steps are:

1. Establish a needs assessment committee.

2. Prepare statements of educational goals.

3. Conduct a survey to determine perceived educational needs.

4. Assign priorities to perceived educational needs.

5. Set desired levels of student achievement.

6. Determine actual status of student achievement.

7. Compare actual status with desired levels.

8. Assign priorities to educational needs.

Following needs assessment and problem identification, long range aims, intermediate goals and immediate objectives to alleviate the problem are articulated. These should be stated in terms of behavioral change outcomes, and be projective, timely, and measurable in nature (Wall, 1972). Aims, goals, and objectives provide direction for the remaining phases of planning—implementation.

Hull and McCaslin (1975) describe objectives as

1. operational,
2. observable,
3. written independently of other objectives,
4. consistent with the total educational plan,
5. realistic,
6. of moderate level of difficulty,
7. sequenced logically,
8. flexible,
9. related to time and cost constraints, and
10. attainable.

The next planning phase bridges the problem identification and problem resolution aspects. It is the identification of methods and resources from which potential solutions for the problem at hand will be created. The activities of this step comprise a search effort which produces an inventory of available methods, resources, *and* constraints. The following aspects should be considered:

1. Staff resources (public and private)
   a. professional
   b. support
   c. administration and supervision
2. Physical resources
   a. facilities
   b. equipment
   c. materials
3. Time
4. Financial resources

5. Programs, services, and activities currently available

6. Staff development (preservice, in-service training)

7. Community resources (advisory committees and civic organizations) (Iowa, 1974)

A strategy to solve the identified problem is selected from the list of potential solutions generated as a result of a school's methods and resources inventory. Potential solutions may include (1) direct installation of an existing program, project, or method not currently used in the school or district; (2) adaptation or revision of a program, project, or method currently used in the school or district; or (3) the development of a new program, project, or method. Concurrent with the selection process, the strategy is programmed.

> Programming is the making of a relatively comprehensive list of procedures to be followed in putting decisions into effect. Phasing and scheduling of activities are dimensions of programming. Programming, as part of the process, results in the PLAN which shows the what, when, who, why, and how. . . . The key to drafting the PLAN is assuring that its elements are in proper perspective. For instance, if the PLAN does not provide for financial support of these in the budget, then the PLAN would seem not to be in proper perspective and balance (Wall, 1972).

Because adoption of an innovation may be difficult and slow, the plan should include a strategy of implementation and change. Legal-rational, normative-reeducative, and power-coercive change strategies should be examined (c.f., Havelock, 1971; Bennis et al., 1969; Argyris, 1970) and an appropriate strategy designed.

Implementation involves putting the plan into action and should be accompanied by an ongoing evaluation to assess and monitor its success. The program should be revised, based on the evaluation information. Successful implementation frequently hinges on the acquisition of new knowledge, skills and attitudes by educational personnel. Nelson (n.d.) suggests in-service training as a means of facilitating staff development. Specifically, he notes that participation and involvement are necessary ingredients for successful implementation of career guidance education programs for adults.

Similarly, Wall (1972) states,

> Probably the most important determinant of good control, coordination and adjustment of programmed activities is that of information and communication. Relevant information, provided to all persons in a program, tends to "involve" people and create an environment that is conducive to their participation in future change efforts. Program personnel should have pertinent information; they should have it first (ahead of "outsiders"); and they should get it in a manner which shows that the issuing person or agency is pleased that they do get it.

Evaluation—especially its formative aspects—and feedback provide input for the modification and revision of the program to enhance its effectiveness and position as an integral part of the school. In its summative aspects, evaluation provides feedback related to the successful attainment of objectives, and may also include program examination through Program-Project-Budgeting-Systems, or Cost/Benefit, Effectiveness, or Efficiency Analyses (Nowrasteh, 1971).

Planning via committee has been espoused by Nelson (n.d.) and Mannebach and Stilwell (1974). They suggest the involvement of community—district—and building-wide advisory and steering committees in decision making for and delivery of career guidance programs. Because of its centrality in the rural community, planning for the school must involve a broad range of the citizenry.

The enumeration of steps in the planning-implementation cycle may seem to indicate that the cycle is a series of events which take place in an exact order. This is not so. The planning-implementation process facilitates decision-making, and problem-solving. It also provides information for program evaluation. School system personnel in cooperation with student and community representatives can use the planning-implementation process to develop meaningful career guidance programs.

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ASSESSMENT FOR GUIDANCE

John D. Hartz

Section A: Individual Inventory

There are two distinct approaches to individual assessment within a comprehensive guidance program. One approach is testing for global program planning and development—a group approach. The other is testing for counseling (or preparation for counseling)—an individual approach. The concepts, technical requirements, and methods of applying what is learned vary greatly depending upon the approach. Both approaches along with their concomitant assumptions and problems will be discussed.

Background and Problem

In contrast to group assessment for program planning and coordination, individual inventory for counseling is an intimate, personalized affair. Implicit in this approach is the view that counseling is, and must be, an individualized interaction. This view follows from the overall goals of counseling as usually stated in terms similar to the following:

1. The provision of assistance to *all students* in order that they may recognize their limitations and potentials to the fullest possible extent, and to utilize this knowledge and development in planning their school and post-school careers.

2. To coordinate the efforts of home, school and community to assist students towards the goals named above (Rothney et al., 1959).

While in many cases students may have similar patterns of development or may be facing similar concerns, the role of the counselor is to help the individul analyze and cope with his/her unique world. Such help requires that the counselor bring particularized knowledge to the situation and be prepared to interpret it. This counselor must also be able to answer questions students might pose or to raise questions about subjects the student has not considered. This kind of work must occur face to face, one to one.

The counselor needs to turn to many sources, procedures and techniques to help the student answer questions, acquire the skills to better understand self, cope with the world and be a better decision maker. The uniqueness of the individual and the individual's situation preclude the standardized application of any methods. It is not possible, given the current state of knowledge on human behavior, to determine before conferring with a student what information is needed to help him with his concerns. The counselor will usually find that he/she and the counselee must jointly embark on a complex and the time-consuming quest over a considerable period of time.

The following is a general guide for information to be collected:

1. A clear conception of the particular concern of the counselee

2. A developmental picture of the individual (historical)

3. A composite of his/her social and cultural background.

Individual conditions and circumstances determine the particular importance of each of these points. For example, to answer the questions of a student who first comes because of vocational indecision, the counselor may have to consider the subjects: (1) health, (2) related experience, (3) financial and social circumstances in the home, (4) opportunities for training and employment, (5) usual behavior and significant deviations from it, (6) enthusiasm, (7) style, (8) adjustability, and *anything* about him/her as a *particular* person that may be useful in helping to resolve the indecision. Possible sources for this information include:

1. Interviews or current observations

2. Records of past performances

   a. grades
   b. productions, as in shop, music or art
   c. personal documents

3. Current status

   a. health
   b. hobbies
   c. community activities

4. Test performances. (Rothney et al., 1959).

Thus, it can be seen that testing is but one of the means that a counselor has for acquiring information concerning a counselee. The counselor must also consider whether the information is geared to helping the student. In other words, ultimately information is not acquired for the benefit of the counselor but for the benefit of the counselee. Procedures designed to help the student better understand self can be divided into into three separate groups:

1. Those which provide the counselor with information about the student but do not add to the student's knowledge about self without interpretation or relay of information.

2. Those which provide the counselor with information, but also add to the student's understanding because of what the counselee does in the process of generating the information. Examples of these would include well constructed essays and questionnaires.

3. Those which are designed to provide the student with information about self but do not generate any data for the counselor to consume. They could, however, relay information to the counselor through the counselee. An example of this would be a values clarification group exercise.

To reiterate, in selecting procedures to generate information, it is essential that the counselor keep in mind that these procedures are utilized for the individual student's benefit (self-understanding).

While detailed description of measurement constructs is beyond the scope of this article, it must be noted that the differences occur when tests are used for group (manpower utilization) or individual (counseling) purposes. This difference perhaps can best be shown by analogy. For example, insurance actuaries can very accurately predict the percentage of women seventy years of age who will die in 1976. They can even predict the causes by percentages. However, what they cannot predict is whether or not Betty Jones, age 70, will die this year.

In counseling, particularly in vocational counseling, prediction is the key. Efforts at assisting others must be geared toward trying to help people with the next step they must take. Consequently, when standardized tests are used for this purpose, the first concern must be the predictive validity or the forecasting efficiency of the instrument. This involves the relationship between performance on an instrument and performance in the future. An example would be using a high school senior's scholastic aptitude test score to predict grade point average during the first semester in college. The coefficient of predictive validity for this type of test, depending on the individual test, would be approximately .50, or approximately 15 percent better than chance prediction.

While this gain may seem modest, prediction of success in an occupation is much more difficult and should be approached with much more caution. In fact, Thorndike and Hagen (1959) concluded that tests cannot predict later occupational success. Ghiselli (1966) also emphasized this difficulty in utilizing tests to predict job success and concluded that success in training (.30) is more amenable to prediction than success on the job (.19).

These coefficients of predictive validity are for groups. They give odds on the whole, in general, on the average, other things being equal. If a counselee asks what they mean *personally*, the counselor can only answer in terms of odds or probabilities. And, in cases where predictive validity is as low as it is for prediction of job success, these probabilities have little meaning for the individual. Because predictive test results have little applicability to individual students, a number of counselor educators are calling for either a moratorium on testing or a drastic revision of how tests are used (Goldman, 1971). While for the most part the questioning of "test and tell" has been a recent phenomenon, as far back as 1959, Rothney et al., stated:

> It is conceivable that much good counseling can be done without use of tests and, indeed, there is evidence that it was done many centuries before standardized tests were available. If all tests were currently eliminated from counseling, it is unlikely that society would recognize the change for many years. Business would go on, schools would continue, and millions of young persons would be satisfied with their choices of training, occupation, marriage partners, and leisure-time activities. Research in education, guidance, and psychology has not clearly and conclusively demonstrated that the use of tests has increased the welfare or productivity of any significant numbers of persons despite the fact that millions of them are used annually (p. 20).

A number of those supporting a continuation of testing for counseling have been advocating new ways to utilize test results. Instead of using test data to provide predictions of performance via the correlation and regression model, the discriminant-centaur model for using test data is advocated. Through this model students are provided with an indication of their similarity to people already involved in a vocational pursuit (Prediger, 1974). While some problems are involved in the use of this model, one of its advantages is that it does not promise, or promote the promise of success or failure. What it does is say to students, "By this score or profile you resemble, at least in these areas, people employed in these fields." Thus, it can be used to promote occupational exploration.

Several other issues need to be examined before utilizing tests: (1) Is the group on which the instrument was standardized comparable to the group with which it will be used? (2) Has the counselee been provided with the opportunity to develop or learn that which is being assessed? (Ganschow et al., 1973). These are very critical questions, particularly when plans are made to interpret the scores according to norm tables provided in the testing manuals or when attempts are made to assess potential via intelligence, ability or aptitude tests.

The above is merely a cursory summary of some of the problems associated with standardized testing for counseling. For a more in-depth and technical approach to some of the problems, readers are encouraged to consult: *Personality Assessment* by Richard L. Lanyon and Leonard D. Goodstein (1971); *Measurement for Guidance* by John W. M. Rothney et al. (1959); *Using Tests in Counseling* by Leo Goldman (1971); *Essentials of Psychological Testing* by Lee J. Cronbach (1960); or Buros' (1972) *Mental Measurements Yearbook* (reviews).

In reviewing literature on testing for counseling little was found relative to individual inventory in the rural schools. Some general comments, however, can be made:

1. The same tests, inventories and surveys employed by counselors in urban areas are utilized in rural areas.
2. Problems associated with testing for counseling become magnified (depending on the make-up of the school population) when viewed in relation to rural education.
3. Because of limited staff and resources less standardized testing occurs in rural schools.

Aptitudes

In general in all schools, rural and urban, two types of instruments are employed for vocational guidance, aptitude tests and interest inventories. Aptitude, according to Super and Crites (1962), is normally defined as "the capacity to acquire proficiency." Ordinarily the aptitude test is used to predict success in an occupation or field of study. To date, usable individual tests exist relative to the following aptitudes: intelligence, musical talent, artistic ability and aesthetic judgment, manual dexterity, mechanical ability, spatial visualization, and perceptual speed and accuracy (Super and Crites, 1962). In rural schools in particular, individual tests other than for assessing intelligence are not employed. Typically large and small schools alike utilize aptitude test batteries. The two most frequently used are the Psychological Corporation's *Differential Aptitude Tests* (DAT) and the U.S. Employment Service's *General Aptitude Test Battery* (GATB).

The Differential Aptitude Tests. This is a battery of six aptitude and two achievement tests put out by the Psychological Corporation. The aptitudes measured include: (1) Verbal Reasoning, (2) Numerical Ability, (3) Abstract Reasoning, (4) Spatial Relations, (5) Mechanical Reasoning, and (6) Clerical Speed and Accuracy. The achievements measured under the Language Usage Test include spelling and sentence structure. This test was designed for use with high school students, grades 8-12, and takes about three hours to administer. Norms are available for each grade and scores can be converted to percentiles. Validity data primarily involve prediction of educational achievement in high school and college. For the most part, occupational norms do not exist.

The General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB). The purpose of this battery is to measure the nine factors which the originators found to underlie the most valid aptitude tests. They developed validity data and occupational norms for these factors, which include: G (intelligence), V (verbal aptitude), N (numerical aptitude), S (spatial), P (form perception), Q (clerical perception), K (motor coordination), F (finger dexerity), and M (manual dexterity).

While the GATB was written for the older adolescent and adult seeking employment through the Job Service, in recent years its use has been expanded in the schools. The battery requires about two hours to administer. Scores are reported on a standard score basis with a mean of one hundred and a standard deviation of twenty. The norms for the GATB are expressed in terms of occupational aptitude patterns (OAP), and cutting scores are designated for the three most important aptitudes characteristic of a group of related occupations. These scores are keyed to the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (Super and Crites, 1962). As far as aptitude tests go, the GATB has perhaps the most extensive research base and is the most useful with the non-college bound.

The blanket use of these batteries might be considered puzzling if counseling and guidance is viewed as an intimate, personalized affair. It would appear that one individual test with appropriate norms according to the needs of the individual counselee would be sufficient. However, the use of these batteries can be explained in terms of ease of administration, broader norm groups, popularity, and perhaps most legitimately, because individuals can be viewed as having a number of different aptitudes that contributed to a pattern of potential.

Interests

According to Super and Crites (1962) there are four interpretations of interests and four methods of obtaining data on interests:

1. Expressed interest – The person states whether he likes or dislikes something.

2. Manifest interest – The expression of interest through participation in an activity or occupation.

3. Tested interest – Interest measured by objective tests or opposed to subjective inventory.

4. Inventoried interest – Interest assessed by means of negative and affirmative responses to lists of activities and occupations.

Interest inventories are the most common mode used in assessing interests. Two types of these exist–the so-called "empirical" and the "non-empirical." The Strong-Campbell and the Kuder D D are examples of the former and the Kuder Vocational C H and Ohio Vocational Interest Survey exemplify the latter. The empirical lead to the derivation of scores keyed to specific occupations. The non-empirical lead to the derivation of profiles keyed to areas rather than specific occuaptions (Herr and Cramer, 1972).

Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII). The most recent version of the Strong inventory (1973) has combined the separate male and female forms into one condensed form. Items have been revised for sex bias and results have been keyed into John Holland's six occupational scales. Occupational scales have also been expanded. However, the Strong-Campbell test still basically mirrors the Strong Vocational Interest Blank.

Basically the Strong inventory calls on the subject to indicate if he likes or dislikes various occupations, amusements, school subjects, types of people and so forth. Scores then are compared with the scores of people actually employed in a number of occuaptions. The test is not timed but mandates computer scoring and readout.

Ohio Vocational Interest Survey (OVIS). This recently developed instrument is based upon the Data-People-Things model employed in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles.* The 280 items yield

24 inventory scores reportedly representing the 114 worker trait groups presented in the DOT. These 280 items consist of job activities for which students indicate a degree of liking. As a result of the combination of items students are given ratings relating to Data-People-Things.

Kuder Preference Record (Form C). On the high school level, the Kuder-Vocational is the most widely used interest inventory. On this inventory students are asked to select which of three activities they enjoy most and which they enjoy least. These responses are combined in regard to ten broad categories of interest:

1. Outdoor
2. Mechanical
3. Computational
4. Scientific
5. Persuasive
6. Artistic
7. Literary
8. Musical
9. Social Service
10. Clerical

Scores are presented in percentiles according to category. These percentiles are based on large normative samples. No occupational keying exists for the Kuder C.

Other inventories. Two other inventories deserve mention because of their uniqueness and extensive use, the Minnesota Vocational Interest Inventory and John Holland's Self Directed Search.

(1) *Minnesota Vocational Interest Inventory.* This is an instrument constructed to measure the vocational interests of non-professional men. A total of 158 triads of occupationally relevant activities are presented to the respondent, who is asked to indicate which is liked most and least. Thus, the format is that of the forced choice.

Scales for the instrument were constructed by comparing the responses of twenty-one non-professional groups with a tradesmen-in-general group. In addition nine homogeneous scales were constructed from items which intercorrelated. Respondent scores can be compared to both sets of scales. The scores on the twenty-one occupational scales purport to show the extent of similarity between the respondent's expressed interests and those of men employed in those occupations. Scores on the nine area scales are said to represent the respondent's likes and dislikes for certain kinds of work common to several occupations.

(2) *John Holland's Self-Directed Search.* This is an interest/behavior inventory constructed to key into John Holland's theory of vocational choice. Essentially Holland's theory classifies personal styles and environments into six types:

1. Realistic
2. Investigative
3. Artistic
4. Social
5. Enterprising
6. Conventional

According to this theory people manifesting a particular style should, for the optimum satisfaction, select an occupation which has an environment congruent to their style.

The SDS was designed to assess individual behavior styles in terms of his six classifications. The materials provided consist of a workbook and a booklet, "The Occupations Finder." By using the workbook the respondent assesses activities, competencies, attitudes, and self-estimates of abilities. The result obtained is a three letter code said to represent a preferred style relative to the four areas. These are then computed into a summary code. This summary code is used in conjunction with "The Occupations Finder" to locate jobs with environmental codes similar to the respondent's summary code.

The current state of the art relative to individual assessment is contingent upon one's view of both man and the role of counseling and guidance in the schools. If man is seen as more than a composite of traits and factors, the utility of standardized scores, which present partial information relative to some norm group at some point in time, is questionable. Gordon Allport in *Pattern and Growth in Personality* (1965) cites an illustration showing how it is not the parts which are crucial to understanding the individual but the way the parts are organized and interrelated:

	Quality A	Quality B
Individual	Intelligence	Dominance
John	90 percentile	10 percentile
Henry	10 percentile	90 percentile

> Here we are told that John is a very bright fellow but quite submissive; Henry is dull but dominant. So far so good. But may not Quality A interact with Quality B so that a new unit is formed? May not John be a brilliant follower, Henry a stupid aggressor? And the flavor of their conduct will be further altered by their other qualities, so that the emergent pattern is not predictable from the universals. A molecule of water and of peroxide have the same universals—hydrogen and oxygen; they differ only quantitatively (H_2O and H_2O_2), but a small quantitative difference leads to totally unlike products. Try them on your hair and see.
>
> The problem of individuality, then, is not how John's intelligence or dominance compares with these same qualities abstracted from other people, but how John's intelligence is related to his dominance, to his values, to his conscience, and to everything else in his personality. It is the "inside system" that baffles a conventional science of universals. (pp. 9-10).

Obviously to Allport the "whole" of the individual is greater than the sum of the parts. For him, the outstanding characteristic of man is individuality—uniqueness. Every person is seen as deviating in thousands of ways from the hypothetical average, but it is not the total of these deviations that is his/her individuality. Again, the essence of the individual is the interrelationship or patterning of the parts.

To get to know a person (and no one perhaps even really knows himself or herself) we compare that person's characteristics with three sets of norms: universal norms, groups norms and idiosyncratic norms. Or as Kluckhohn and Murray put it:

Every person is in certain respects:

1. like all others (universal norms)
2. like some others (group norms)
3. like no others (idiosyncratic norms)

Universal norms are used when we compare the person with the general population of human beings we have known. An example would be saying that John is tall.

Universal norms shade into group norms. Here we compare with others in this or that group, e.g., if we say John has an I.Q. of 90 we mean that he scored slightly below average for the group that has been tested with a particular instrument. After we really get to know John we set up our own expectations for him. If one of his actions does not fit our expectations, we say "he's not himself today." To understand John we need to get to the individually prescribed norms. John has many characteristics similar to all humans, and many that resemble his cultural fellows, but to know him we need to know how he weaves them into his own unique system.

Assessment as typically carried out only involves getting to know a student in relation to group norms. Yet, if Allport is correct, this is insufficient. As stated earlier, counseling is, or should be, an intimate, personalized affair—an affair through which the counselor attempts to facilitate the personal, social, psychological and vocational development of the client. In this quest the counselor is charged with helping each student cope better, make better decisions and understand himself or herself better. Obviously to achieve this the counselor must come to know his/her counselees well, to know each person's idiosyncratic norms. This requires assessment beyond the use of standardized norm-referenced tests.

Psychologists have employed a number of procedures in an effort to understand individuals. Some of these methods have been largely untapped by counseling and guidance practitioners.

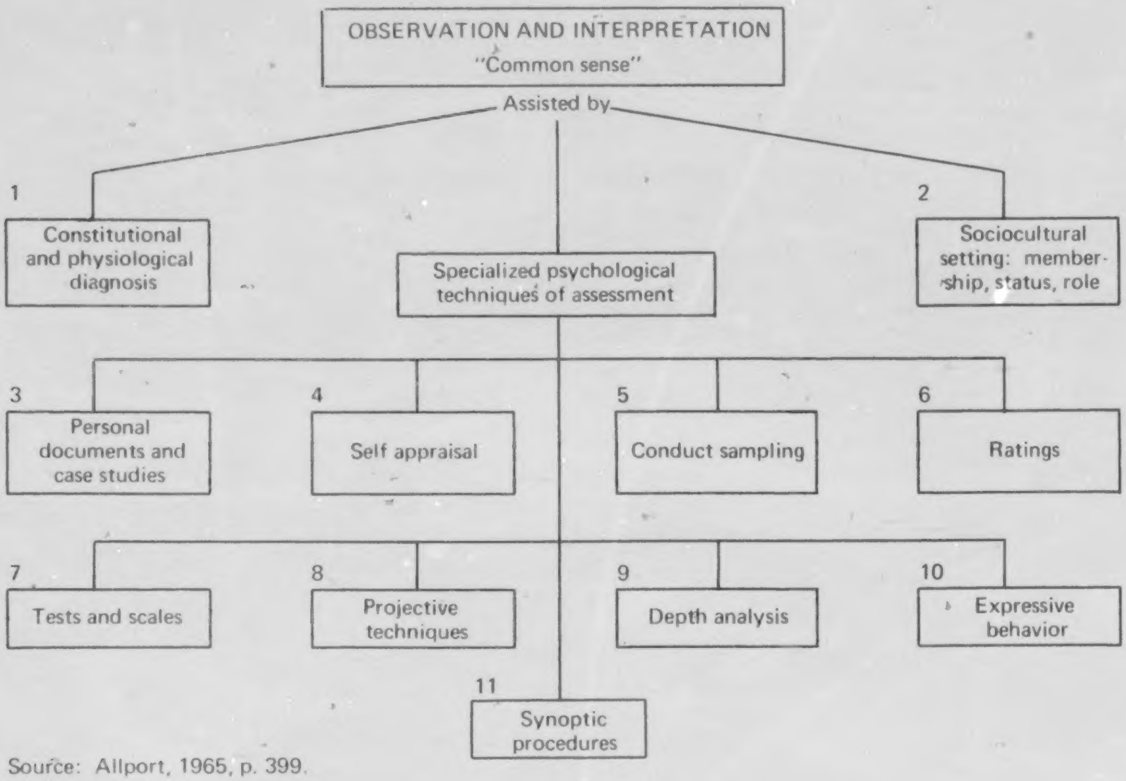
Allport (1965) presents a graphic tabulation of how these many methods can be classified (Figure 2). Each of these major methods breaks down into subdivisions which lead to the conclusion that there is no one best way to understand another human being. Most of the techniques that are employed do lead to comparing people to one another. What is needed is pioneering work in enabling *intra*personal rather than *inter*personal comparison.

Career Guidance Assessment

Individual assessment in career counseling can only be viewed as being very limited in scope. If the function of career guidance is to promote the career development of each student, we have to know not only the specifics of what we are trying to promote and what activities will promote these

FIGURE 2

A Classification of Assessment Methods


OBSERVATION AND INTERPRETATION
"Common sense"
Assisted by
1
Constitutional and physiological diagnosis
Specialized psychological techniques of assessment
2
Sociocultural setting: membership, status, role
3
Personal documents and case studies
4
Self appraisal
5
Conduct sampling
6
Ratings
7
Tests and scales
8
Projective techniques
9
Depth analysis
10
Expressive behavior
11
Synoptic procedures

Source: Allport, 1965, p. 399.

specifics but we have to get to know each of our students well. Consequently, relying on interest inventories and aptitude tests cannot suffice.

Not only are aptitude tests and interest inventories insufficient in themselves, but they may be inappropriate when used in conjunction with other assessment procedures. As mentioned previously, aptitude connotes that which is innate. That which is innate is not subject to direct measurement. Consequently, what occurs is a measurement of performance. From this performance measure inference is made as to what is innate. If the content items of aptitude tests are examined with no title regarding their origin, it is difficult, if not impossible, to differentiate them from achievement test items. If they do not differ, the performances from which we are inferring innate abilities are learned performances. Before we can accurately infer innate differences based on differential performance, we have to assume equal opportunity and motive to learn those things tested. In addition, we have to assume equal motivation during the testing process, equal conditions during testing, scoring, etc. Beyond these general problems are a number of statistical and technical problems (standard error, incremental value of items, appropriate norm groups, criterion groups, and so on). However, the major concern should be what impact testing has upon the individual student. If aptitude tests are interpreted by students as being measures of their innate abilities, their use must be questioned. Do students use these results to determine what they could, should or will be able to do?

The problem of accurate inference from test results to aptitude, the minimal predictive efficiency of the instruments, and the dangers associated with misinterpretation by students make the use of these instruments questionable at best. It would seem that if achievement tests and aptitude tests include essentially the same kinds of items, and correlate highly, then achievement tests are preferable. The rationale for this statement stems from the belief that the results of achievement tests are less subject to misinterpretation. A number of counselors and counselors in training have responded to this statement by saying that this would not provide them with much assistance in helping their counselees select careers. Yet, helping students select appropriate careers is a predictive task. The vocational predictive validity of aptitude tests for groups barely exceeds chance and for individuals it is nil. Consequently, these tests cannot be validly used for prediction of vocational success.

Interest inventories suffer from additional problems and are, as typically employed, more insidious. Technical critiques of each are beyond the scope of this effort. However, counselors and their students should be aware of the following general limitations:

1. Scores can be faked deliberately or without awareness.
2. Titles of the instruments are simply christenings by their authors.
3. The vocabulary used is a source of confusion to subjects who respond to the items on the instrument.
4. Many of the instruments force the subjects to make choices among items about which they have neither knowledge nor concern. They may also require choices among items of unequal familiarity.
5. Use of particular scoring methods in order to get so-called "objectivity" limits the subjects' expressions of enthusiasm or concern.
6. Statistical methods used in construction and norming of the instruments are questionable.
7. Results are subject to misinterpretation by those who use the instruments.
8. Evidence of the *predictive* validity of the instruments is either nonexistent or questionable.
9. They rely on self-estimates known to be highly invalid.
10. The cultural background of the subject is not given adequate consideration.
11. They suggest stability of personality and hence encouragement of counseling of subjects as they are without consideration of what they may become.
12. In extreme cases of high interest or disturbed personality they *may* simply elaborate the obvious.
13. They discourage experimentation because they seem to provide a large quantity of numerical scores for rapid calculation. (Rothney et al., 1959) (pp. 284-285).

One problem, somewhat technical in nature, requires some explanation: the matter of interpreting ipsative scores. Most of these instruments contain forced choice items; consequently, choosing one option as a "like," for example, precludes choosing another one in the same triad. Thus, items are not independent. The respondent is, in fact, required to indicate number of endorsements or likes regardless of whether or not this degree of "need" exists. The result is a rank order of interests for the respondent allowing comparisons *intra*-individually. However, since these rank orderings were not independently arrived at, inter-individual comparison is at best difficult. Furthermore, the forced choice format yields scale scores not independent from one another because an elevated score on one dimension will force a lower score on another. Since most statistical operations require independence of scores, interpretation of results is difficult. Bauernfeind (1962) concludes that the most accurate interpretation that might be made regarding ipsative measures is as follows:

> Your interests in artistic activities are higher—we don't know how much higher—than your own average interests—whatever that it—relative to the interests of other boys in the national norms groups (Bauernfeind, 1962).

In light of the above, the counselor should ask himself or herself before using any interest inventory: Is it worth the time and the cost? Does it add significantly to what the student already knows? Martin R. Katz, in reviewing the 1969 revision of the Strong test for the *Mental Measurement Yearbook* (Buros, 1972), cites a number of research studies which indicate that expressed interest is at least as great as the predictive validity of inventoried interest. The time required to assess students' expressed interest is only a small fraction of the time required to complete any of the interest inventories. The relative costs even more impressively favor gaining ratings of expressed interests.

One is left to conclude that there is little interest inventories can offer in helping students take their next step. In light of their high cost and poor validity, they offer little assistance to counselors and may potentially damage counselees.

Summary

In light of both the current limited assessment efforts and the plethora of additional possibilities which exist, assessment services require reconceptualization. The source of this should be a review of the goals of guidance and a reordering of assessment techniques and procedures to fit those goals. Obviously, consideration must be given to the multiple duties counselors now perform as well as the constraints of time, money and resources.

If guidance is viewed as having the responsibility of fostering growth by providing students with process skills, assessment procedures must be developed beyond test and tell. We know that, on the average, people change jobs at least four times during their working years. Assisting them in self understanding by standardized procedures or by procedures that require the intermediation of a counselor does not provide them with the self-understanding capability required to prepare them for job changes. Procedures must be found which will develop this capability in students. Holland's Self-Directed Search is one possibility, but other techniques need to be identified or developed.

Furthermore, if idiosyncratic patterns (norms) of behavior need to be acquired to understand another and to facilitate that person's understanding of self, procedures must be developed to gather, record and collate the necessary data. Preparatory to this, criteria need to be developed to assure that valid data is obtained. Moreover, in setting up such criteria the counselor must be concerned with selecting information based on the nature of the counselee's problems. Without criteria to guide in the selection of materials and methods, the counselor may collect much useless information and overlook important data. Tentative criteria cited in *Counseling the Individual Student* (Rothney and Roens, 1949) include:

1. Any datum about an individual that assists in the understanding of his behavior must be given due consideration.

2. Any datum about an individual that is to be used in his guidance must be appraised accurately, fully, and economically.

3. The culture in which the individual is reared must be thoroughly examined.

4. Longitudinal data must be used in the study of the individual.

5. Conceptualization must be continuous as each separately evaluated datum is added in the study of the individual. (p. 65).

While this list does not necessarily contain all the most important criteria, if used, current practices of data collection would greatly improve.

In summary, the state of the art regarding individual assessment (inventory) in the rural (small) school is very similar to that of schools in general—weak. Given the widespread use of instruments of questionable validity and utility, the fact that generally less testing takes place in the small schools is perhaps a boon to students. Given the goals of guidance, there is an obvious need to develop new and improved methods for assessment. Furthermore, guidelines are needed for generation, collection, and collation of data.

Section B: Needs Assessment

Background and Statement of the Problem

The first step in terms of organizing and implementing a career guidance program is determining where students are relative to where it is perceived they should be in their career development. The comparison of where students are in relation to where they should be, or discrepancy analysis, is the framework around which a needs assessment program is developed.

The discrepancy between where they ought to be and where they are represents their "needs," from which the goals for subsequent programmatic treatments are developed. For example, if the program standards maintained that students entering ninth grade should know at least five occupations in ten clusters, and assessment determined that a significant number of students knew five in only two clusters, one of the program goals would be geared toward elimination of this discrepancy.

Standard minus Observation = Discrepancy ⟶ Program Goal

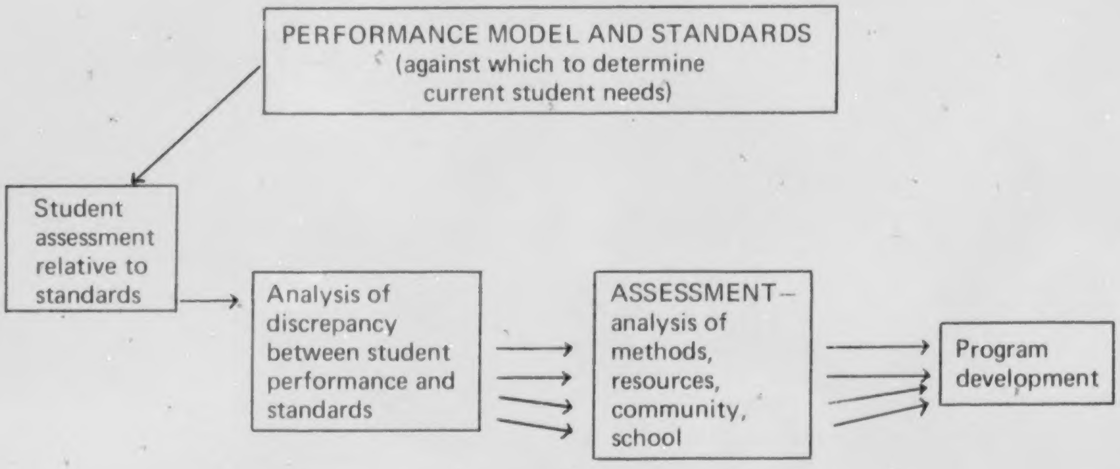
On the surface, this appears to be a very straightforward task. However, a number of preliminary questions need to be asked: (1) What are appropriate standards for students in this community? (2) What is the optimum method for assessing needs in relation to this standard? (3) What would or should constitute a significant discrepancy relative to the standard in question? (4) Where, in terms of priority, does this discrepancy stand relative to all discrepancies delineated? (5) Are there feasible methods and available resources to attach this discrepancy? and (6) Is addressing this discrepancy politically acceptable?

Obviously, more than a survey of students is needed. Also mandatory is an assessment of methods, resources, and significant others in both the school and the community. These significant others include parents, teachers, administrators and community leaders. Support from significant others is needed if the career development program is to change school policy or lead to reallocation of resources.

Once needs are assessed, human and physical resources determined, and attitudes and values of significant others described, program planning can begin. While needs assessment can be viewed as involving only the students, this larger view of "needs assessment" in terms of what is needed to organize and implement an effective program is advocated. By this we mean assessment in terms of the current status of students, school and community. Following is a diagram representing the necessary phases of needs assessment.

Client Assessment

The above introduction addressed the necessity for assessing student needs. A number of additional questions should also be asked: Who do you assess? What do you assess? When do you


PERFORMANCE MODEL AND STANDARDS (against which to determine current student needs)
Student assessment relative to standards
Analysis of discrepancy between student performance and standards
ASSESSMENT– analysis of methods, resources, community, school
Program development

assess? How do you assess? How do you handle the data you obtained and feed it back into the system and to the students?

Who Do You Assess?

If the program is K-12 and oriented toward developmental tasks, it is important to gain information on the developmental status of all students for whom the program is designed. In addition, since the ultimate goals of the program are to prepare people for their post-school experiences, it is almost important to survey those who have left school either by graduating or dropping out.

Current students. Assessment of current students helps determine both where they are on the career development ladder and the value of programmatic efforts to meet their career development needs. In essence, once a career development program begins, assessment of students becomes a means to evaluate programs and methods.

School leavers. By including dropouts, transfers, and graduates in assessment efforts we obtain the real "proof of the pudding." Since career guidance programs are directed at promoting career maturity, including facilitating the transition from school to work or other acceptable alternatives, we can determine the degree to which we achieve our ultimate goals. These people provide us with feedback on the overall value of the program and keep us current on new and emerging needs.

What Do You Assess?

The what of assessment is contingent upon the developmental goals of the program. If specific needs have been addressed programmatically, assessment should certainly include these. This permits evaluation of program efforts. However, students should also be assessed relative to overall development criteria in order that additional needs can be identified and student development recorded. Essentially, assessment in this vein constituted a monitoring of development.

When Do You Assess?

The when of assessment, like the what, is contingent upon the program mode. If career development is viewed as a continuous process beginning at birth and perhaps never reaching an ultimate culmination, assessment can take place at any juncture during that period. Obviously, for assessment to take place standards are needed against which results can be compared.

The foregoing presupposes the existence of a program designed to facilitate career development. If none exists, assessment should precede the inauguration of such a program. Unless this is done, resources may be used inappropriately, and glaring needs may be ignored. Furthermore, when new programs have been implemented, reassessment should be conducted to evaluate them.

Prior Students. If the program states or implies lifelong impact, to assess accomplishment of program goals would entail lifelong follow-up of former students. This, however, is not feasible. The remedy is to state goals which are attainable during a feasible time period. For example, if one of the program goals is to have students possess the requisite skills to obtain employment, determining whether or not they possess these skills would be appropriate. The time to obtain this information for both evaluation and feedback purposes would be at the point where a significant number had recently engaged in work-seeking behavior. Therefore, a one-year follow-up would seem to be appropriate.

How Do You Assess?

Assessment can be distinguished from individual inventory or testing in preparation for counseling. Assessment in this vein is a group rather than an individual affair. Its purpose is to determine overall group needs in preparation for programmatic offerings. In other words, we are not primarily interested in where Janey and Billy are relative to where they ought to be, but rather the general group needs relative to some standards. Assessment in this genre does not involve the delicacy or preciseness that individual inventory requires. What we need is a general picture of the group's developmental needs. And we need to acquire this picture in an optimally cost effective way. A straightforward questionnaire appears to be most appropriate when the following factors are considered:

1. Cost – assessment for these purposes would require extensive use of standardized measures. These are expensive.

2. Norms – in many schools the student population may differ radically from the groups on which the standardized instruments were normed.

3. Time – to explore all of the domains of interest through standardized measures would be inordinately time consuming.

4. Localization – locally constructed surveys can be tailored to the program and the population.

5. Administration – questionnaire surveys do not require the specificity of administrative conditions.

6. Scoring – many standardized procedures require machine or computer scoring, increasing the cost and creating a time lag.

7. Interpretation — the use of diverse standardized measures would require a difficult synthesis in order to make the data meaningful.

8. Interpretation to students -- we live in a time when standardized instruments are frequently viewed as revealers of truth; this makes interpretation of standardized results difficult at best.

While questionnaire surveys seem to be most feasible for global assessment, if intensive assessment or evaluation of a particular facet of career development is needed, then selection of an appropriate standardized instrument would perhaps be better. The problem involves identification of the appropriate instrument.

Review

In reviewing literature and research on assessment of rural youth, little was found regarding the needs assessment process itself. Consequently, models, methods and materials specific to the assessment of rural youth were notable for their absence. Given the lack of resources, particularly for research and development efforts related to rural guidance, it is highly unlikely that many such models, methods and materials exist.

Career guidance objectives essentially represent a series of statements regarding where students, in general, ought to be in terms of group career development norms. Very often this "ought to be" is based upon theoretical presuppositions and is not supported by empirical data. Nevertheless, once a model has been adopted, these objectives become the developmental goals for the guidance program. The next step, in terms of program organization and implementation, is determining where students are relative to where they "ought to be." This determination is the first stage of a needs assessment.

Standardized Instruments

For assistance in selecting a standardized instrument for assessing some aspect of career development, one can turn to the *Handbook for the Evaluation of Career Education Programs* (Developmental Associates, Inc., draft, 1974). During 1974 and 1975 a nationwide search and review of instruments which measured career education objectives was conducted as part of the study for this state of the art report. Over one hundred instruments were reviewed during two separate panel meetings. The panels recommended ten instruments for use and another four as being promising. The ten included:

1. Career Development Inventory (CDI)
2. Youth Inventory
3. New Mexico Career Education Test Series - Career Oriented Activities
4. Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale
5. Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory (long form)
6. How I See Myself

7. Assessment of Career Development (ACD)

8. Career Maturity Inventory (CMI)

9. Differential Aptitude Test (DAT)

10. Self Observation Scale

Those recommended as being promising included:

1. New Mexico Career Education Test Series - Career Planning, Job Application, Career Development

2. Minnesota Cognitive Questionnaire for Career Education

3. Orientation of Career Concepts

4. Employment Readiness Scale

Recommendations were made and data were presented on what the tests actually measure, how they correspond to common career objectives, and what their limitations are.

Of the instruments approved by the panel, two are worth specific comment because they attempt to assess student career development needs in a comprehensive fashion—*The Career Maturity Inventory* (CMI) and *Assessment of Career Development* (ACD).

The Career Maturity Inventory. This instrument, developed by John O. Crites, is designed to assess what its title states—career maturity. Donald Super has provided the conceptual basis for this instrument. Essentially the CMI consists of two types of measures, an attitude scale and a competence test. The Competence Test is actually a composite of five subtests: (a) Knowing Yourself (Self-Appraisal); (b) Knowing About Jobs (Occupational Information); (c) Choosing a Job (Goal Selection). (d) Looking Ahead (Planning); (e) What Should They Do? (Problem Solving). In these tests hypothetical stituations are presented and the individual is asked to choose one of five courses of action. The Attitude Scale attempts to assess the dispositions the individual has toward career choice and entering the world of work. Five dimensions are covered: (a) Involvement in the choice process; (b) Orientation toward work; (c) Independence in decision making; (d) Preference for career choice factors; (e) Conceptions of the choice process.

While the original pool of items for this instrument was rationally derived, the final selection of items for inclusion was based upon empirical considerations. Those items which differentiated among age and grade levels were included. Norms have been developed for grades 6 through 12. Thus, normative comparisons can be made.

Assessment of Career Development (ACD). This new instrument (1974) put out by ACT is designed for use with eighth through eleventh grades "as part of a school's developmental career guidance program." Its stated purpose is to help counselors and administrators gain the information needed to plan and develop a career guidance program and to assess programs already initiated. The scales in the ACD are structure on the following career development components:

(a) Occupational Awareness

(b) Self Awareness

(c) Career Planning and Decision Making

The Occupational Awareness components included items dealing with occupational knowledge (occupational characteristics and occupational preparation requirements) and exploratory occupational experiences (formal and informal). The components related to Self Awareness include preferred job characteristics (job values and working condition preferences), career plans (educational plans, occupational preferences, certainty of occupational preferences), and perceived needs for help. Career Planning and Decision Making include career planning knowledge (basic career development principles, reality factors, career planning process) and career planning involvement (seeking information, doing and experiencing, focusing information and experience, making career plans). In addition students are asked to indicate their reactions to career guidance experiences. Also provided is the option to include up to nineteen locally developed items. A group summary report as well as a list of the individual reports are provided. Results can be compared to norms (national or local) or to performance levels expected by the schools. Guidelines for determining expected performance levels (EPL) are provided.

The employment of instruments such as the ACD or the CMI requires more than mere administration. Concepts and items need to be analyzed to see if they include those which are of local concern. These instruments are based upon the authors' conception of vocational maturity and what subject matters must be mastered to develop vocationally. If local program planners and developers have a differing conception, employing either of these instruments would be measuring by the wrong yardstick.

While ACD does allow locally selected criterion-referenced assessment, the selection of criteria at this juncture would undoubtedly involve subjective judgment. What is needed are empirically validated standards and criteria. In the words of Garth Sorenson (1974):

> Given my view of counseling and program evaluation, it seems to me that we need a criterion-referenced test battery that samples the entire domain of knowledge and skills that a student must master in the process of preparing for a career. Such a test battery would not necessarily show a student's rank in relation to other students. But the battery I am imagining would provide detailed information about what a student has learned at a particular point in his career and what he needed to learn next. It would reflect counterproductive as well as productive learning. Such a test would be truly diagnostic in that it would not only report a student's standing in relation to an absolute norm, but would also indicate his specific weaknesses and the kind of training he needed to correct those weaknesses. It would be valid for curriculum evaluation. Such a test would be complex and might be time-consuming; it would probably need to be constructed as a part of an instructional system. (p. 56)

Several problems accrue relative to needs assessment in a systems approach. Foremost among them are determination and specification of goals and behavioral objectives against which students' current performances are assessed. Standards relate to standardization which, in some aspects, is contrary to the ends of guidance, but which appears to be the cornerstone of a "systems approach." Outputs are prescribed, inputs are measured, and the process is monitored until those prescribed outputs are achieved. Means to the ends (outputs) are viewed as only relevant to the degree that they produce the prescribed outputs. While the systems approach provides guidance, provides a way of planning, development, implementation and evaluation for individual or group guidance activities, it must be more than this. In essence, a guidance program needs to provide each student the personal attention reflecting their unique characteristics. Counseling is a personalized, intimate affair in which the counselor serves to promote the individual humanness of *each* counselee. It is this personal dimension that is the essence of counseling and guidance, and it is this personal dimension which differentiates counseling and guidance from other disciplines. Prescribing goals for a group, organizing activities to assure the achievement of the goals and objectives robs guidance and counseling of this unique dimension. Group assessment, planning and evaluation are better left to those disciplines where students are treated as groups.

Counseling is always a personalized affair. Always because even regarding vocational matters there are *personal* choices to be made. In many cases with many students, particularly when vocational matters are of central concern, there may be similar situations and patterns of development. However, there must be some one person who accepts the responsibility for assisting the individual in analyzing unique personal problems. To such situations someone must bring particularized knowledge of the individual in order to help that person with developmental needs. Furthermore, this someone must be ready to adapt techniques and methods to fit the manifest needs of the individual.

Group techniques such as classes in occupations or infusing occupational information into curricular offerings may assist the individual in making a vocational choice. It is possible that information obtained from such classes may stimulate the student to make a more thorough examination of a proposed occupation. However, given a responsibility to serve each student, the classes must be supplemented by a counselor's individual work with each student.

In a similar vein, the specification of performance objectives appears to be antithetical to a guidance approach. The gestalt of *individual* human development, the concern of the counselor, cannot be broken down into finite parts. A summary of Johnny's performances in terms of behavioral objectives gives us no real picture of him. What we need is a synthetic conception of the "whole" of Johnny, not an incomplete enumeration of the parts.

The Role of Group Assessment

Since the purpose of guidance is to serve individuals, needs should be individually determined. While the counselor can serve the individual in more ways than through individual counseling, it must be remembered that individual counseling is the heart of a counseling and guidance program. As such, time to perform this vital function must be closely guarded. To obtain additional time for individual counseling and in preparation for individual counseling certain kinds of group assessment can apply. But, in doing group assessment, the counselor needs to remember that the students are his/her concern—not the economy, social order or school. Group assessment should entail determination of student needs as perceived by students, not as determined by discrepancy between prescribed standards and behavior. Consequently, what need to be developed are methods and materials for determining student self-perceived needs and the means to translate these into goals amenable to group practice. If such a translation can be effected, not only will the counselor benefit from the increased time made available by group assessment to provide personal attention to the individual student, but the student will enjoy the benefits of support and feedback from the group.

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CAREER GUIDANCE PROGRAM

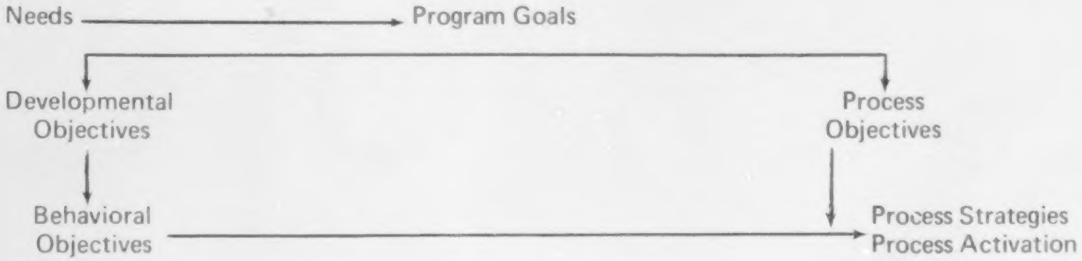
GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Harry N. Drier
Karen Kimmel

The literature is rich with systems models for guidance program planning, development, and evaluation (Ryan, 1972; The Center for Vocational Education, 1976; Wellman, 1971; and Mannebach and Stilwell, 1974), but little evidence can be found that they are being utilized in rural schools.

A systems approach for guidance programming for rural schools should provide a framework in terms of general and specific pupil objectives and outcomes, and program process objectives and strategies designed to fulfill the students' needs and desires.

A universal element in systems literature is that once general tasks or functions are assigned or undertaken by guidance program coordinators, a means by which specific ends to which these tasks or functions are directed needs to be identified and used. Wellman (1971) suggests that the process flow in translating individual or group needs to expected outcomes for guidance program use is as follows:



Ryan (1972) and Wellman (1971) define program goals as long-range operational delineations of needs. While goals reflect student needs that have been identified or suggested through a variety of methods, they are still too far removed and too confounded by other influences to be adequate for guidance program planning. Campbell et al. (1971) suggest that in most cases career guidance program goals are actually statements of services to be performed, e.g., group counseling, job placement, career center operation, personal/social counseling, and testing. It is suggested that while program goals provide statements of functional focus, more specific direction is needed. A variety of terms is used in the literature for the second level of program function statements. Ryan (1972) suggests the term "subgoals," Wellman (1971) titles them "developmental objectives," Gysbers and Moore (1974) apply the term "developmental goal," and Drier (1972) moves from statements of program concepts to goals at the second level. These authors agree that no matter what title you give to second level statements of program intent, they should be operationally defined for implementation at the institutional level. Campbell et al. (1971) suggest that program objectives for career guidance should

1. evolve from a conceptual scheme reflecting our present state of knowledge of education and vocational development

2. specify an integrating basic philosophy and/or mission

3. focus on learner behavioral outcomes

4. be achievable within a specified period of time, e.g., within the time constraints of the educational system

5. be amenable to evaluation

6. be operationally translated into practice.

Many program objectives are usually necessary for each program goal. This set of goal-related objectives operationally define the hypothesized guidance program contributions.

The literature is very consistent on the next step of program planning. There appears to be overwhelming support for the concept of developing behavioral objectives. They provide for program efficiency, communication, specification of methods and resources to be used, criteria for measuring learner performance, and the framework for program monitoring. While behavioral objectives have been used in industry, business, and the military for many years, Tyler (1934) is credited with their introduction into education. Since that time, several authors have given direction to their use in education (Bloom, 1956; Mager, 1962; and Kibler et al., 1970). The Sixties showed promise for the use of behavioral objectives guidance when Wysong (1969), Tennyson and Klaurens (1969), and Gysbers and Moore (1974) began to incorporate behavioral objectives into their writings and counselor preparation practice.

While the literature lacks evidence that indicates the use of behavioral objectives in rural schools, it does provide models and criteria that can be utilized. No assumption is made that the development or use of behavioral objectives should be any different in rural than in any other schools. The assumption is made that educators in rural schools need to apply the process of developing locally derived data-based behavioral objectives to take into account their unique conditions, resources, community expectations, and needs.

A review of literature related to behavioral objectives revealed a very consistent presentation of structure and use. One model which describes the necessary elements and use of behavioral objectives if found in the Career Planning Support System Materials (The Center for Vocational Education, 1976). This model presents the following four elements of an objective:

1.	(A)	Actor(s)	The group of students (or adults) who will perform a desired task
2.	(B)	Behavior	A task that the actor can be seen or heard performing
3.	(C)	Condition(s)	What the actor has to work with to perform the desired task; can be materials or a setting
4.	(D)	Degree of Success	The criterion that can be used to determine whether a student has successfully mastered the behavior prescribed by the behavioral objective.

Some of the verbs listed by Mager (1962) describing the expected actor behavior are:

To recall
To name
To change
To illustrate
To demonstrate
To compare
To identify
To construct
To order

This set of words is open to few interpretations. Several authors describe the *condition* element of a behavioral objective as those words that describe either the setting of the actor or that state what materials or information will be given the actor to perform the desired task(s). Likewise, there seems to be agreement as to how the achievement of the objective *degree of success* should be stated. Descriptive adjectives or adverbs and numbers are most often suggested. The following five statements are examples of criteria for developing this element of a behavioral objective.

1. Describe minimum degree of success (such as two out of three times), percentage (such as 75), or proportion (such as 3/4).

2. State those items that must be included in the response in order for the response to be correct.

3. Set time limits on work to be accomplished, e.g., Write a 300-word story within five minutes, or the student will interview three workers for 15 minutes each within a two week period.

4. Indicate the person(s) who will assess or evaluate the performance as successful,

   Judged by counselor
   Rated by classmates
   Reviewed by parent
   Checked for completeness by self.

5. Use descriptive words or phrases that set the standards for success,

Words	Phrases
Exactly	Without error
Successfully	That meets established criteria.

As increased pressure for guidance program accountability occurs, schools that use the above form of describing expected behaviors on the part of the learner will be in an excellent position to demonstrate through hard data the worth and effectiveness of their guidance programs and services.

Behavioral objectives bring meaning and measurement to the guidance program's goals and developmental goals by defining sequential development relationships in terms of behavior that can be described from observation, objective measurement, and self reports. Jacobsen and Mitchell (1975) demonstrated the importance of this point by developing a master plan for career guidance and counseling for the Grossmont Union High School District which is based upon student and program goals, subgoals and behavioral objectives. The master plan approach provides a possible model for rural school use.

Career development theory can and should provide the basis for determining behavioral objectives appropriate to the maturity level of the learner and related to the sequential developmental objectives of any guidance program (Wellman, 1971). The literature suggests that as schools use behavioral objectives to define the developmental tasks of learners across the broad range of individual growth and career development maturation (grades K-14), there are generally agreed upon concepts that planners should consider. Zaccaria (1965) reports the following concepts that are generally accepted by the guidance profession:

1. Individual growth and development is continuous.
2. Individual growth can be divided into periods or life stages for descriptive purposes.
3. Individuals in each life stage can be characterized by certain general characteristics that they have in common.
4. Most individuals, in a given culture, pass through similar developmental stages.
5. The society makes certain demands upon individuals.
6. These demands are relatively uniform for all members of the society.
7. The demands differ from stage to stage as the individual goes through the developmental process.
8. Developmental crises occur when the individual perceives the demand to alter his/her present behavior and master new learnings.
9. In meeting and mastering developmental crises, the individual moves from one developmental stage of maturity to another developmental stage of maturity.
10. The task appears in its purest form at one stage.
11. Preparation for meeting the developmental crises or developmental tasks occurs in the life stage prior to the stage in which it must be mastered.
12. The developmental task or crisis may arise again during a later phase in somewhat different form.
13. The crisis or task must be mastered before the individual can successfully move on to a subsequent developmental stage.
14. Meeting the crisis successfully by learning the required task leads to societal approval, happiness, and success with later crises and their correlative tasks.
15. Failing in meeting a task or crisis leads to disapproval by society.

Career guidance program planners need to consider the career development maturation stages or periods that learners experience (Crites et al.; Osipow, 1968; Super et al., 1963; Herr, 1966). Furthermore, the critical content for learning needs to be classified into domains. Bloom (1956) suggests that learning can be categorized into the following three broad domains:

Cognitive Domain

> The cognitive domain involves such behaviors as thinking, knowing, and problem-solving. This area is concerned with the ability to retain knowledge, understand principles and concepts, apply information or skills, and evaluate information.

Affective Domain

> The affective area of behavior involves attitudes, interests, values, social adjustment, and the development of appreciation. This area is concerned with specifying behaviors that will reflect the student's feelings toward the material he/she is studying or the willingness to do something.

Psychomotor Domain

> Behaviors in the psychomotor area emphasize physical skill. They include gross body movements, fine motor movements, speech behaviors, and nonverbal communication behaviors, such as gestures and body movements. The behaviors in this area may not be as important to your career development program as the behaviors in the cognitive and affective area.

A review of the literature yielded several references which suggest that materials have been developed for rural school use and that, in certain locations throughout the country, rural schools are beginning to utilize the process of local developing data-based goals and behavioral objectives in modifying existing or developing new career guidance programs and activities.

Merrel and Steffens (1972) indicate that in their work through the Western States Small School Project, they extensively utilized goals and behavioral objectives. Their efforts focused upon the development of integrated career development curriculum learning units including instructional statements. These statements contained specific goals and objectives for rural youth pertaining to specific areas of the program.

A guidance-related project in rural North Carolina divided occupational education programs among the lower, middle, and upper grades, and integrated the academic and occupational curriculum within the context of a total approach to career planning and preparation. The goals, process objectives, and product objectives were written by the developers of the project and dealt with education for occupational proficiency (Carroll, 1971).

During the past two years, The Center for Vocational Education has been field testing a Career Planning Support System (CPSS) in forty-two schools located within twelve states. Of these forty-two schools, 30 percent (fourteen schools) are classified as rural or small schools. One major aspect of CPSS is the requirement that the guidance program be based upon local data-based priority goals and behavioral enabling and criterion objectives. The experiences reported during the field test period in these rural schools support the notion that they not only see the value in developing programs using the behavioral objective approach, but have demonstrated their intent by implementing the process at the high school level (The Center for Vocational Education, 1976).

Herr and Cramer (1972) suggest that the use of behavioral objectives and developmental tasks helps developers describe a set of demands with which the individual must cope as well as a way of looking at how a given individual is attaining such an expectation. Furthermore, they reinforce the point that use of locally developed objectives better assures sequential developmental experiences and prescribes alternative methods of coping successfully with developmental tasks.

The literature reveals that over thirty-five State Departments of Education have developed models since 1972. Kansas, Kentucky, New Jersey, Wisconsin, New Hampshire, Maine, Hawaii, and Iowa are but a few examples of state career guidance models developed with the aid of rural school counselors which include the use of goals and behavioral objectives as a critical step in the process framework. Additionally, numerous rural school guidance program guides were identified (Sheyboygan, 1971; Union Grove, 1972; CESA No. 9, 1973; Roseville, 1973; Georgia, 1972). These guides use locally derived goals and behavioral objectives for the development of new career guidance activities and materials.

The literature suggests that rural schools are at least at the point of accepting the use of locally developed, data-based program goals and behavioral objectives. However, most of the numerous references do not provide evidence that rural schools are in fact using locally derived goals and behavioral objectives. They merely confirm the existence of guidelines for possible use in rural schools.

Lastly, the literature suggests that there are certain cautions that guidance leaders should recognize as they attempt to develop local data-based program goals and and behavioral objectives. Popham (1968) and Morrison (1969) have analyzed some of the factors which may contribute to resistance toward the use of behavioral objectives. These authors suggest that the use of behavioral objectives might be viewed as mechanistic, dehumanizing, destructive of educational values, and isolated from other educational outcomes. They also suggest that educators, including counselors, will find the task of developing behavioral objectives difficult, and their initial attempts will, in all probability, lack specificity. However, through practice, reinforcement, and use, educators will find that the task becomes less formidable.

The National Assessment for Educational Progress (1971) summarizes the need for locally based career development objectives. It suggests that local guidance planners confer at length with teachers, administrators, and interested laymen to gain advice on the focus of their school's guidance program. By participating in the development and review of program objectives, they will gain awareness of the importance of guidance to youth and adults in their community.

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RESOURCE ASSESSMENT

Wayne Hammerstrom

Resources are nice to have around when you need them, but until then they can be filed away in your mind or in a large cabinet. Not so! Resources are used constantly and the more a person becomes aware of them the more valuable and useful they become. Any accumulation of materials, equipment, programs, funds or ideas might be considered a resource. However, their worth as something you can rely upon requires some analysis of their merit, value, or usefulness. This conscious analysis is resource assessment.

Resource assessment involves two processes: (1) identifying resources, and (2) evaluating them. Mere identification of a resource tells nothing about its value or worth. Value must be judged by some acceptable criteria. Typically, assessment of resources is determined through an informal process, although a few systematized approaches are beginning to appear (Wilson et al., 1975; Peat, Marwick, Mitchell, and Company, 1974).

Two important components of resource assessment, which many resource assessments fail to include, are the questions: (1) Who will use the resources?—administrators, counselors, researchers, students? and (2) For what purpose are the resources intended? Before resources can be sought and gathered, some focus or guideline ought to be established. Resource needs of curriculum staff may be quite different from resource needs of students. Different users of resources require different criteria for selecting and using resources.

In establishing and operating a career resource center for adult clients, the staff of the Career Education Project used the following questions to guide planning and expansion of their resource center:

- Who will be using the collection?
- What kinds of materials will they need?
- From what sources can the necessary materials be acquired?
- What procedures will be required for:
    - Ordering and record keeping?
    - Determining space needs, furnishings, and equipment?
    - Cataloging and classification?
    - Dissemination and circulation?
- What are the staff requirements?

- How will the collection be used?
(Tobin, Banks and Szymanski, 1975, p. 4)

Determining the utility of a resource is different from determining its inherent characteristics. A resource which is appropriate in one setting may not be appropriate in another. To determine this, the *user* of the resource needs to establish criteria for judgement based upon the context in which the resource will be used. Such criteria of utility are external to the characteristics of the resource itself. For example, the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* provides an excellent description of occupational prospects from a national perspective, but its utility for local use is less appropriate. The goals or needs of each user determines the utility of a resource, not simply the quality of the material. "Selection and development of appropriate occupational information presupposes consideration of the needs of the group for whom the materials are intended" (Hills, 1973, p. 24).

Assessment of a resource eventually involves a decision whether to accept (select) or reject the resource. To facilitate that decision, Hills (1973) suggests a decision-making model. The first step is to identify the goal or need for which the resource is intended. Data is collected for making the decision, including information about the evaluator's values, interests, and biases. The data and alternative outcomes of the decision are evaluated until a decision is made to either select the resource, gather more information, or reject it.

The advantage of describing assessment as a decision-making process is that this places less emphasis on the decider's "expertise" and more on the component parts of the decision, i.e., information, analysis, selection. Decision-making skills can be taught to others. However, emphasizing assessment as an expert judgment may give the impression that assessment is a status right. Unfortunately, Hills did not give enough endorsement to assessment as a decision-making technique. Instead, he lapsed into the familiar pattern of listing criteria intrinsic to the resource and not to its use.

Hoppock (1963) encourages school counselors to teach their students a little about assessing materials themselves. Counselors, instructors and librarians do not have time to evaluate and screen all materials, especially when a resource serves the needs of different users. Yet, although students may be taught some appraising ability, the counselor "can never escape ethical and professional responsiblity for himself knowing the quality of publications to which he refers his students. . . ." (p. 43).

Hoppock begins resource assessment with five essential questions: When? Where? Who? Why? How? Resources need to be appraised for the timeliness of the information provided, the source and geographic limitations of the evidence, the credibility of the source and authorship, the purpose(s) intended, and the method by which the information was collected and presented. Hoppock posed critical questions for resource assessment, but he did not specify criteria for judging resource quality standards.

To help establish standards for the preparation or evaluation of occupational resources, the National Vocational Guidance Association (NVGA) has periodically revised and published occupational information guidelines (Hoppock, 1963; Baer and Roeber, 1964; Isaacson, 1971; and Weinrach, 1974). The NVGA's resource checklists cover many of the same concerns as Hoppock's critical questions: accuracy of the information, currency, usability, reader appeal, and thoroughness (Ksaacson, 1971). As example of the types of checklist criteria, the following questions summarize the conclusions of an NVGA special committee report on standards for occupational information.

1. Who are the publisher, the sponsoring organization, and the author, and what are their qualifications?

2. Is the date of publication shown and the dates when the material was gathered? Is there provision for bringing the rapidly changing material up to date?

3. Does the publication indicate its purpose, its limitations, and the groups to whom it is intended?

4. Does the publication relate to the needs of varying groups according to age, educational attainment, social and economic backgrounds?

5. Is the occupation described accurately and objectively, without advertising or attempts at recruitment?

6. Is the occupation described as a way of life as well as a way of making a living?

7. Is the social and economic significance of the occuaption properly presented?

8. If the occupational study is intended for high school or college students, is the content sufficiently comprehensive to include all factors that may be significant in career choice?

9. Is the style clear, concise, interesting, and adapted to the needs of the reader for whom the material is intended? Is the physical format attractive and suited to the needs of the readers? Is the statistical material properly treated and presented as simply as possible?

10. Are the research methods that were used properly explained? (Baer and Roeher, 1964, pp. 160-161).

A checklist serves to promote the ideal. No resource can ever meet all of the NVGA's specifications. Yet, as stated by Baer and Roeher (1964), "in the final analysis, the intelligent *use* of occupational literature is more important than the initial selection" (p. 161 [emphasis added]).

An assessment process and document form were designed and used by Peat, Marwick, Mitchell and Company (1974) to conduct a search, review and assessment of career education materials for the U.S. Office of Education. Assessment of noncopyrighted and noncommercial career education materials was based on the factors of adequacy, consistency and versatility of materials, and their freedom from bias. The assessment was in the design of a flow method, including steps to:

- classify materials
- reference evidence of effectiveness
- indicate absence of bias
- indicate a sampling of the range of material in priority areas
- indicate support components required and offered by the unit
- indicate curriculum design and development characteristics, and
- diagnose weaknesses and make recommendations for improvement.

The assessment document provided a very thorough checklist and assessment process. Appropriately, it began by defining the purpose of its use. Although the purpose of this document was to provide a summary of career education materials for review by teachers and other instructional personnel, its format could be used by teachers and others to perform their own assessments. Secondly, the assessment document identified goals of career education in order that assessment could be "based heavily on the utility of the materials in an educational system, and the extent to which they are directed to a variety of instructional objectives, issues, and needs" (p. 14). Finally, an extensive checklist scoring procedure was used to complete the assessment according to predetermined criteria standards. This extensive and systematic format provided a very effective assessment of the materials; however, its scope may be beyond the abilities of a single person if the number of materials to be reviewed is large.

Resources available to guidance programs include more than published materials. The most obvious resources are human resources: guidance personnel, teachers, students and non-school community members. Assessment of human resources occurs continuously, and probably, quite unconsciously. Whenever a counselor needs help, surely in the mind of the counselor is a mental list of people who could be called upon. The alternative to a mental list seems to be what some people have called "resource accounting" or "summarizing resources."

The Ohio *Resource Assessment Procedural Guide* (1974) collates a number of charts, tables, and graphs to assist a resource assessment administrator to keep "account of the resources (people, equipment, space and materials) that are being used to support career development activities of the school and the funds available to purchase additional resources" (p. 11). Similarly, "Module 4: Assessing Current Status" is a part of a set of manuals designed by the American Institutes for Research (DeBois, n.d.) to help persons developing comprehensive career guidance programs. Summarizing resources involves inventorying program resources (human, financial and technical) and monitoring their use or contribution to the guidance program.

Both proposed "accounting" and "summarizing" activities and their structured charts, forms and logs, might appear cumbersome and unnecessary. Most guidance personnel might find it difficult to complete the necessary paperwork. In addition, these activities appear created more for "accountability" purposes than for assistance toward program development. They consist of: Activity records of what happened? Who was involved? How long did it take? and Why was it done? With the aid of students, staff and paraprofessionals, the counselor could find ways of identifying and using increased resources in the school and community.

However, neither of the two previously described procedures provide *assessment* of resources for quality or utility of contribution. No criteria or standards accompany the preceding resource inventory techniques, nor do they relate directly to program goals. Record keeping for its own sake is a futile activity. Assessment, as judgment, requires a basis for meaning and interpretation.

Among the many sources of career information and guidance, the local community potentially offers a multitude of resources, including assistance from local personnel in community businesses, agencies, and organizations. A comprehensive assessment of resources should, therefore, extend into an assessment of community resources.

Identifying community resources is initially the most difficult task. The number of public and private sources of materials, information and services are numerous: libraries, employment agencies, manpower offices, chamber of commerce, bureau of apprenticeship and training, educational facilities, community social groups and organizations, advisory commissions, and local information centers (Tobin et al., 1975). Data on local resources can be collected periodically and kept in looseleaf binders for easy updating. Examples of community resource surveys can be found in Wilson et al. (1975); Kosmo et al. (1975); *Resource Assessment Procedural Guide* (1974); Norris et al. (1972); and Baer and Roeber (1964).

There are no standard procedures for conducting community resource assessment because of the different purposes for which resources can be used. Thus, the most important step in developing a community resource survey is to identify the specific purpose or objective of the survey. Procedures for conducting a community resource assessment have been described by Baer and Roeber (1964) and by Norris et al. (1972). The preliminary activities (planning and definition of purpose) of the community survey or resource assessment are critical. Unless a specific purpose is determined (i.e., one focused on a specific problem), a community resource survey will be too broad, have little meaning when completed and thus be a waste of time. The purpose, if specified, can focus the survey activities, facilitate planning and give better analysis to the materials and information acquired. The difference between assessment of resources and mere identification of resources is *use*. In an assessment, resources can be analyzed relative to a specified use; in a survey of resources, the purposes of their use need to be specified in order to yield meaningful data.

To summarize, resource assessment has generally been conducted as an inventory process in which materials, equipment and people are identified, but are not necessarily appraised by any criteria or standards. Although no universal resource criteria or standards exist, localized criteria can be established based upon purposes and objectives selected from the intended uses of these resources. Failure to specify use of resources leaves no basis for judgment of their worth or merit. A resource has little intrinsic value from which to judge merit. The value of a resource can best be judged from extrinsic criteria relative to its use. There is no universal set of resources just as there is no universal set for their use. Assessment of resources will always be relative to their use and the needs of the user. Clarifying the intended use of resources will provide better criteria for assessment of their worth or merit.

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METHODS ASSESSMENT

John D. Hartz

According to Webster, a method is a procedure or process for obtaining an objective. Methods assessment involves deciding what to do in order to reach an objective; consequently, methods assessment follows the specification of guidance objectives for an individual or group.

Assessment of methods implies that there is a variety of means to achieve the desired ends and ways to decide which means are best for a specific goal, individual, or group. Before a method (activity, procedure, technique) is selected, a thorough understanding of the needs of the individual or group must be acquired. Once this understanding is acquired and goals are selected, a search for appropriate methods can begin.

Just as individual assessment requires separation into group and individual methods and procedures, so does methods analysis. While counseling and guidance programs and services are essentially directed at the individual, often in the process of working with individuals, counselors can perceive group needs. This perception, combined with a knowledge of general developmental needs, forms the core of programmatic group offerings. Methods assessment related to facilitating individual growth and development is a different task. Here needs are viewed against the warp and woof of the individual's longitudinal development.

From another perspective, again in light of the counselor's primary responsibility towards individuals, methods for group presentations can be viewed as preparation for counseling. On the other hand, methods assessment and selection specific to the individual case are intimately part of the counseling process.

Individual Methods Assessment

Selection of methods for working with the individual is often a complex and creative task. Ultimately counseling is a practical art. While the study and understanding of the individual in itself is a difficult task, arriving at an understanding of another is not enough. The counselor has to do something with what is learned—counsel. And, the counseling cannot be better than the data. The collection, collation, and reconceptualization that is done in order to understand another cannot be carried out by an amateur.

The counselor's work actually begins when a moving longitudinal picture of the individual has been acquired. Then the counselor must

1. take some action,
2. see to it that others take action, or
3. reach the conclusion that no action is necessary.

As a consequence of the counselor's action there should be a change either in the subject's behavior, status or both. If human behavior and development were linear, simple and stable, a master plan for working with the individual might be developed on a formula basis. However, given the complexity, diversity and instability of human behavior, no such formulas exist. Instead, the counselor must not only adopt or adapt existing procedures or strategies, but devise and improvise new ones to fit the contingencies of individual cases.

The approaches the counselor employs are contingent upon the individual and that individual's concern or problem. This means that people learn or change as a consequence of a number of intervention strategies. Much depends upon the client's status as well as upon the facet of behavior or development which he/she desires to change. For example, Johnny's personal-social skills might be amenable to change through reinforcement. Conversely, improving Johnny's study skills might be dependent upon confrontation. The choice of methods for helping Johnny is contingent not only upon having a number of strategies shown to be effective with others, but knowing Johnny well. So the counselor minimally needs to know

1. How people learn
2. How people develop
3. How a particular person has learned
4. How a particular person has developed
5. A number of strategies by which individuals can learn.

Having a background in such matters, while necessary, is, in no way, sufficient. What remains is a problem like that of the prospective painter who has the tools and a subject and tries to make a work of art. Without something extra, a creative spark, there is no guarantee that what is put on canvas will be art. Similarly, the counselor has to combine knowledge of the client with the "best" technique or techniques to produce the desired end. Given the complexity of people, the desired end is often difficult to reach. This is perhaps why we talk of the art, not the science, of helping.

However, just as the artist can be aided by a knowledge of the tools of his or her craft so too can the counselor. Knowledge of the techniques that might be employed and an idiosyncratic understanding of the individual cannot help but improve the current state of the art. All too often counselors appear to operate from a very incomplete understanding of the individual coupled with a "one best way approach" to resolving problems or facilitating development.

What appears to be needed to improve the current state of the art is a reconceptualization of the methods counselors typically employ. While counseling is an individual matter with one-to-one interaction forming its cornerstone, the process of individual growth does not always have to result from the interview by itself. People do learn as the result of other contingencies or strategies. All too often it appears that counselors fail to recognize this fact and fail to utilize their time optimally. Additional strategies are needed to facilitate change—strategies more time effective than the one-to-one process.

The foregoing is not a proposal to do away with the one-to-one interview but rather to provide the opportunity for all to experience its benefits. Given the counselor's time (1,000 hour/year) and the typical student/counselor ratio of 400 to 1, using the interview process to facilitate change for each student is not feasible. And, if counselors can facilitate human growth and development, they do not have the right to deprive any student of their services. Consequently they are faced with providing intimate personal service to approximately 400 students within the time parameters of 1,000 hours. To do this a modification of the interview approach should be developed.

Such a modification could be based upon what is now known of the one-to-one counseling process itself. Counseling encompasses an inward phase where the counselor and counselee establish rapport and centralize the problem or task and an outward phase during which the problem or task is attacked. In light of the counselor's time constraints, the individual approach would appear feasible during the first phase but not during the second. During the second phase, it would be more time effective to rely on different learning modalities. This would provide each student the intimate personal contact only the well trained counselor can supply. However, such a plan would require new and creative work on the part of the counselor in selecting appropriate methods for the individual during the second phase.

Perhaps improvement can begin if counselors first keep their client's goals at the forefront. Below is an excerpt from *Counseling the Individual Student* (Rothney and Roens, 1949) which shows that a counselor can study and understand the individual and then creatively move into idiosyncratic action to facilitate the individual's development through a number of learning modalities.

ROY

Plans for Parental Action Drawn Up
by the Counselor and Roy's Parents

(Reasons for the don't's had been explained to the parents. Partial explanations are added in the brackets.)

1. *Don't* call him Junior. Call him Roy. [Roy resented the implications of childishness in the name "Junior."]

2. *Don't* compare him with Jimmie. [Younger brother.] *Don't* show Jimmie's pictures when Roy is present. [Parents had often made odious comparisons between Roy and Jimmie.]

3. Praise him for the skillful work he does in the school shop. [Roy had begun to doubt that anyone would appreciate anything that he did.]

4. Encourage football participation. Go to the games, and praise him when he is successful.

5. Take the pressure off the boy. Stop *nagging.* Overlook all minor difficulties for the time being. *Try not to scold once between now and the end of the term.*

6. Boys of this age usually prefer companions of their own age at the movies rather than their parents. Don't force your presence upon him. [His parents had decided to go with him when he went out so that they could watch him.]

7. Don't insist on college attendance or imply that it is essential. Let him know that attendance at a mechanics institute might be possible after he finishes high school.

8. A good deal of Roy's difficulty appears to be due to the fact that you have been *trying too hard* to get him to do what you consider to be the right thing. Stop

prodding him. It's going to be difficult to do this but the success of the plan depends on it.

Plans for Action by Personnel of the School Drawn Up by the Principal and the Counselor

1. See that Roy know exactly why he is doing what he is required to do in school this year and next. This means that the planning of his program must be done with him and that he be told why certain subjects are offered and required.

2. Provide for a review of elementary arithmetic through a project which has meaning to him. Shop or drawing might provide the opportunity. [This was provided through his work in general shop.]

3. Give him a great deal of information about mechanical vocations and provide sources that he can investigate.

4. If he can get a part-time job, give him school credit for time spent on the job.

5. A project which cuts across regular curricular lines should be drawn up so that he will not be required to attend all regular classes. [A project on machines was arranged and he wrote and spoke about machines in his English classes, studied the history of machines as a major project in his history class, did mathematics related to his shop assignments, and spent two periods a day in the school shop.]

6. Whenever you try to force this boy you can expect him to fight back and react in a way which is described as stubborn or determined. He won't "be pushed around" by anyone but will respond to pleasant treatment. [Teachers agreed to try this and they were very pleased with Roy's response.]

Plans for Action by Roy Worked Out with the Counselor

1. Try to finish school without any more trouble this year so that the principal and teachers will let you plan a better program for next year. [This suggestion was made after many interviews with Roy and after he saw that the counselor did not want to "push him around." The effect of his behavior on teacher's attitudes was thoroughly discussed.]

2. Try for one week (at a time) to do better schoolwork. It can be done. [Roy's test scores were interpreted for him, and this procedure eliminated many doubts which he had about himself. He had begun to think that people were right when they called him "dumb."]

3. Work at the canning factory this summer. Save half your pay for next year and spend the rest for a trip. [Roy was sure that he wanted to travel. A bus trip to the northern part of the state was arranged after he had worked for six weeks and he enjoyed the opportunity to get away from home for a short period.]

4. Draw up a plan of study for next year and present it to the principal with a statement that you think you can carry it out without difficulty if he will give you the trial. [Note program described above.] (pp. 278-280)

The foregoing demonstrates the creative individualized methodologies "good" counseling includes. This was an actual case occurring in a school setting. All activities were based on everyone involved knowing Roy as well as they could and knowing that they had at their disposal to help him grow. In getting to know Roy, the counselor used individual encounters and a number of individualized assessment techniques. Once this was achieved goals were specified and action was begun utilizing a variety of techniques and methods judged to be most appropriate for Roy's progress.

These techniques proved helpful in Roy's case and produced the desired effect. Obviously many of these methods would not have been effective with others manifesting problems similar to Roy's. This case graphically demonstrates the idiosyncratic nature of methods assessment and selection.

Group Method Assessment

While the uniqueness of counseling relates to the personal attention provided each student, in terms of students in general, counselors' goals do not differ from those of other school personnel. The school's entire program and staff are charged with the fostering of educational, vocational, social, emotional, and psychological growth of students. Likewise, all staff are charged with supporting the development of self-understanding, decision-making and problem-solving skills. Differentiation occurs primarily in the vehicles used and in the focus employed. The counselor is primarily concerned with the inner world of the individual student; his/her subject matter is the person. In contrast, the teacher's subject matter is the outer world which the student must process. While neither the counselor nor the teacher can perform the essential mission of the other, they can and should function as co-workers in the guidance process (Peters and Farwell, 1966). Figure 3 demonstrates the complementary nature of the two specialties adopted from H. Wirtz in Peters and Farwell, 1967.

FIGURE 3

The Relationship Between the Instructional and Guidance Functions of Education

INSTRUCTION	OVERLAP	GUIDANCE
Society controls the methods of instruction	METHODS	The individual selects the means and sets the pace for problem solving
Society establishes the values	VALUES	The individual interprets society's values in idiosyncratic ways
Society determines the goals of instruction and evaluates achievement	IMMEDIATE CONCERNS	The individual determines the problems to be solved and decides when the solution is reached
The teacher serves as representative of society		The counselor collaborate with the individual

The foregoing assumes a developmental rather than a salvage and repair approach to counseling. If counselors do have responsibility towards each student, a proactive or preventive approach appears to be the only one that is feasible.

In working from a preventive model, the school counselor can optimally assure healthy growth for individuals through collaboration with others charged with promoting the same goals. While each person is unique in many respects, people also have many needs in common. Where students have common needs, counselors, to optimize the time available for individual attention, can and should work through or with others to provide group developmental experiences. These experiences can range from information dispensing by means of formal presentations to exercises in values clarification, decision making and problem solving.

Methods assessment related to the counselor's working with groups or collaborating with teachers differs from methods assessment and selection for the individual. In selecting methods for the group, we are concerned with which method is most effective on the whole.

How a counselor selects methods or techniques is dependent upon which mode, group or individual, he/she is employing to facilitate growth. Either way the counselor has to be goal oriented and make decisions. Either way an awareness of the techniques available for each approach is important. In the individual modality method, selection has to be approached more artistically, creatively and adaptively. In the group modality, selection can take place more scientifically and mechanically.

No specific sources were located which addressed methods analysis relative to an individual as discussed above. Selection of method is discussed by a number of authors relative to a specific "school" or "theory" of counseling. These so-called theoretical approaches, e.g., behavioral, and client centered, might, in fact, be better interpreted as techniques rather than theories. As such, they can become part of the counselor's repertoire. This stance might be branded as theoretical eclecticism, but it is not, if these are in fact not theories but techniques. These so-called theories primarily adopt one learning modality. If learning is viewed as encompassing a number of modalities, i.e., that there are intrapersonal, interpersonal and developmental differences in how people learn, these could be viewed as techniques and the term eclectic (as used within the field) would not apply. Allport (1965), for example, views learning as a complex process wherein different modalities are more preeminent at various stages of development. Consequently techniques borrowed from a so-called variety of counseling theories would not be atheoretical. The most promising espousal of this approach is contained in *Adaptive Counseling* (Rothney, 1972).

Guides for methods analysis related to group approaches were similarly few in number. One was Module 7, "Selecting Alternative Program Strategies," in American Institutes for Research's *Developing Comprehensive Career Guidance Programs: Phase II.* In this source a four step decision-making model was advocated for method selection

1. Step 1 - Survey all imaginable strategies
2. Step 2 - List all possible strategies
3. Step 3 - List all desirable strategies
4. Step 4 - Choose the preferred alternative.

Detailed procedures are outlined and an annotated bibliography (although incomplete) of career guidance strategies is provided. The strength of the AIR approach rests with its emphasis on goal orientation. Its weakness may be its lack of flexibility and its excessive detail, as well as its failure to make recommendations for specific goals. The rural counselor is unlikely to have the time to put it to use.

Sources for Methods

A collection of guides for both individual and group methods appears to be necessary. Furthermore, in light of the time and resource limitations rural counselors face, it appears that some pre-assessment should be done. That is, the multitude of possible techniques should be pre-screened to provide a selection of the "best" methods from which to choose and an explanation on how the selections were made.

Although there was a dearth of materials on methods assessment, the guidance literature was replete with methods and collections of methods that counselors might employ in fostering some facet of career development. Included among these were:

Bread and Butterflies, a Curriculum Guide in Career Development, Agency for Instructional Television, 1974.

The Art of Developing a Career: A Helper's Guide, Human Resource Development Press, 1974.

Deciding: A Leader's Guide, College Entrance Examination Board, 1972.

Career Education Resource Guide, General Learning Corporation, 1972.

Career Planning: Search for a Future, The Governing Council of the University of Toronto, 1973.

Career Guidance: Practice and Perspectives, Jones Publishing Company, 1973.

Developing Understanding of Self and Others, American Guidance Services.

Career Guidance: A Handbook of Methods, Merrill Publishing Company, 1973.

Group Guidance and Counseling in the Schools, Appleton Century Crofts, 1971.

Career Development Resources: A Guide to Audio-visual and Printed Materials for Grades K-12, Jones Publishing Company, 1973.

Group Counseling in the Schools, Houghton Mifflin, 1969.

The Small Group, Random House, 1959.

Man in a World at Work, Houghton Mifflin, 1964.

Review of Career Education in Secondary Education, College Entrance Examination Board, 1973.

Focus on Self-Development, Science Research Associates, 1970.

Resource Book of Low Cost Materials, American Institutes for Research, 1974.

Career Planning Program Grades 8-11, Houghton Mifflin, 1974.

Life Career Game, Educational Materials Center, Palo Alto, California.

Reaching Out: Interpersonal Effectiveness and Self-Actualization, Prentice Hall, 1972.

Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students, Hart Publishing Company, 1972.

The Art of Helping, Human Resource Development Press, 1973.

School Counseling: Problems and Methods, Goodyear Publishing Company, 1972.

Beyond Words: An Introduction to Non-Verbal Communication, Prentice Hall, 1974.

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CAREER GUIDANCE PRACTICES FOR HOME, SCHOOL, AND COMMUNITY

Harry N. Drier
Valija Axelrod

There are probably as many ways to define or characterize career guidance practices or strategies as there are professionals in the field. An operational definition is necessary to organize the study of the literature. Gelatt (n.d.) defines guidance practices or strategies as "the techniques, modes/procedures and activities to be used to accomplish a program goal or a performance objective; the guidance interventions designed to get done what you want to achieve. Objectives are the ends; strategies are the means."

Just as there are numerous ways of defining guidance practices or strategies, there exist many ways to categorize them. One classification advanced by Jones et al. (1973) follows:

1. Direct and indirect interventions by alternative personnel such as paraprofessionals, peers, graduates, parents, community volunteers, resource persons from other educational institutions or agencies.
2. Alternative methods, materials, and media such as experience in business and industry, home study, self-directed study, learning activity packages, use of multimedia, direct and indirect interventions through computerized alternatives, utilization of classes and resources in other educational institutions or agencies, use of locally or commercially produced materials and techniques, procedures developed and successfully implemented by other school districts.

The classification scheme of interest in this summary categorizes the career guidance practices or strategies into five delivery vehicles—(1) counseling, (2) subject-matter-based guidance, (3) non-subject-matter-based guidance, (4) home-based guidance, and (5) community-based guidance. Figure 4 depicts the relationships among these strategies, local needs, program goals, and objectives and the student.

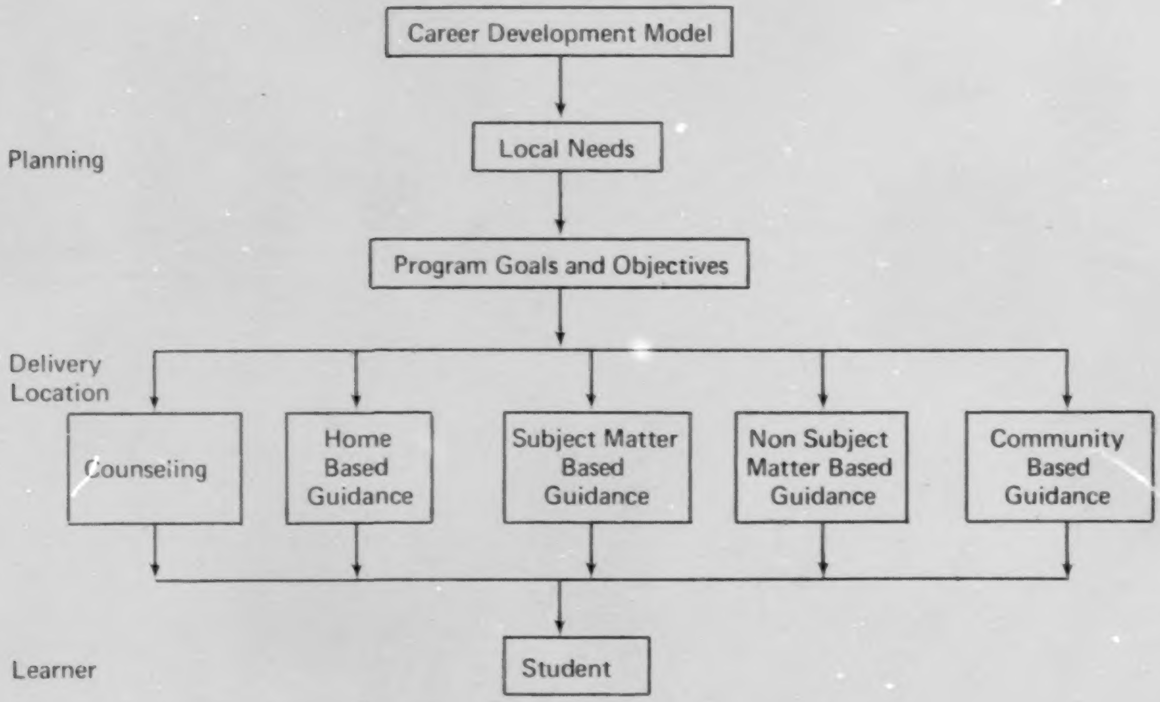
Rural guidance practices are reviewed and detailed as representatives of the aforementioned categories.

Overview

Within the past decade, there has been an increase in the variety of career guidance methods and materials designed to improve career development experiences for youth. However, there is little evidence to suggest that these innovations, methods, and materials meet the special needs of youth, school, and communities in rural settings. Of over 600 methods described in *Career Guidance: A Handbook of Methods* (Campbell et al., 1973), only 14 (2.3 percent) address the needs of rural

FIGURE 4

Classification of Career Guidance Practices


Career Development Model
Planning
Local Needs
Program Goals and Objectives
Delivery Location
Counseling
Home Based Guidance
Subject Matter Based Guidance
Non Subject Matter Based Guidance
Community Based Guidance
Learner
Student

youth. *Guidance Programs and Practices in Rural and Small Schools* (DeBlassie and Ludeman, 1973) is the only recent publication that specifically identifies guidance strategies for rural schools. Forty-seven rural guidance strategies are referenced; however, this number is very small in comparison to the number of career guidance strategies reported in non-rural school literature.

The limited number of rural guidance practices is alarming. Predominantly rural districts represent approximately 40 percent of the school districts in the United States; a more equitable balance of rural and non-rural strategies would be expected. In addition, there exists little evidence to suggest that commercial publishing agencies, State Departments of Education, or independent authors are motivated to alter this situation.

Counseling

Counseling can be viewed at a variety of functional levels (Hopke, 1968). Major attention will be given to the developmental, educational, and vocational levels.

As the primary function of guidance, counseling will be studied first as a face-to-face relationship between a professional trained counselor and client and second as an activity in which a small group of students works with a professionally trained counselor. The emphasis in both is increased understanding and resolution of personal, social, vocational, and educational problems.

In rural areas, opportunities for individual counseling are limited. For example, in northeastern California, "counseling services for elementary pupils are practically non-existent, and there are few 'career' counselors to serve secondary students and the adults" (Gregersen, n.d.). On a broader scale, Taylor (n.d.) states, "In most rural areas, 'career training opportunities' is a myth; many rural youths find they are not receiving as much career information, counseling, and guidance as their parents before them."

The role of the counselor in the small rural school is enhanced by the potential for knowledge of each students' personal characteristics, home background, and interests. The feasibility of individualized counseling is limited by economic constraints imposed on the rural school and the lack of support from the rural community.

Group counseling is one of the primary strategies employed when counselors are available in the rural school. This method shows much promise in rural schools.

The major advantage of group counseling is that in many instances it provides an economical use of limited school resources.

Subject-Matter-Based Guidance

The classroom occupies a strategic position for implementing the guidance function (Cottingham and Witmer, 1970; Hilverda and Slocum, 1973; Miguel et al., 1975). "The legitimacy of the classroom teacher's involvement in performing guidance functions is becoming increasingly accepted" (Gimmestad, 1973).

Subject-matter-based guidance is an approach to the development of a meaningful combination of curricular and counseling activities which will make the total curriculum more interesting, relating it to students' various life roles. Locally developed career guidance goals and objectives can be integrated into all areas of the curriculum.

> The Kimberly [guidance] program [Idaho] is an example of the type that can be implemented in a small, rural school district. Teachers aid the one counselor by including career development units in their courses. The main goal of the program is to develop a model of a guidance program to serve students in grades K-12 that is developmental in nature and includes all aspects of the school (Jones et al., 1973).

Another discussion of the Kimberly Program emphasizes the importance of classroom guidance. (For additional information concerning counseling methods, see the preceding section of this document, "Methods Assessment.")

> To achieve one of the major objectives of the guidance program—making guidance an integral part of the total school curriculum—and to assure that guidance services would be offered to all students at all ages, a continuous, systematic approach to guidance was developed by coordinating classroom units with guidance services. . . . The guidance units have become a practical, student-oriented approach to pupil personnel services by providing individualized learning experiences and group activities in guidance (Hilverda and Slocum, 1973).

Teacher involvement in the planning and implementation of career guidance activities in the classroom not only has the potential for enhancing teacher/counselor relationships but also motivates teachers to provide career development opportunities for students to sharpen their skills and abilities to make sound decisions regarding education, the world or work, and social involvement (Miguel et al., 1975; Witmer, 1975).

Antonellis and James (1973) present cross-discipline planning as a strategy for incorporating career guidance into the curriculum. In this strategy teachers representing traditional subject-matter areas are coordinated by a pivotal person—usually representing an experiential discipline. Antonellis and James (1973) strongly advocate guidance as a suitable pivot discipline: "the hub from which the other disciplines are coordinated, integrated, and reinforced."

> The expected result of a guidance-oriented format functioning as the pivot for cross discipline planning can be summarized as follows:
>
> 1. This kind of format gives guidance an active role not only in reaching students during their developmental stage but in influencing the teaching of subjects.
>
> 2. This format enables guidance personnel to reach more students and give them the direction so important to their success in school.
>
> 3. This format gives guidance personnel some direct influence on and contact with the academic faculty at a time when something can be done to modify the instruction of the end product—the student (Antonnelis and James, 1973).

A teacher/consultant blueprint is used by counselors in rural southern Arizona schools to facilitate coordinated planning for the infusion of guidance into traditional curricular offerings. The blueprint is expanded through brainstorming ideas for integrating career development into classroom activities (Lauver and Hanson, 1974).

A number of activities are adaptable to subject-matter-based guidance. Among the activities are (1) role playing, (2) simulation gaming, (3) guest speakers, and (4) film strips, slides, and movies. The key to planning a successful guidance unit is selecting the best activity or combination of activities.

Non-Subject-Matter-Based Guidance

Non-subject-matter-based guidance concerns guidance services and activities conducted under the sponsorship of the school. It does not include individual and group counseling practices or the guidance infused into the school's instructional program. A major function of this strategy is the provision of career information to students. One method of providing this information is through a career resource center. Many schools have established such centers housing detailed, current information about employment opportunities, job skills and training requirements, characteristics of the working environment, and salary potential (DeBlassie and Ludeman, 1973; Loustaunau, 1975; Tolbert, 1974; Winefordner, 1971).

Career Selection Agent Programs are also used in rural schools. High schools in Weed and Cloudcroft, New Mexico, have involved students from graduate programs in guidance and counseling at New Mexico State University in such a program. The high schools which were unable to finance a full-time counselor benefited from the expertise of the graduate students who provided guidance services on a circuit riding basis (Cross, 1970).

Other techniques employed by rural schools include (1) career seminars, (2) mobile guidance facilities, (3) field trips, and (4) career days and/or fairs (Uxer and Benson, 1971; Varelas, n.d.; Loustaunau, 1975).

Home-Based Guidance

Career guidance does not depend entirely upon the school as a resource base for programming. The home and local community also contribute to the career development of students. There is a growing trend toward sharing the decision making with, seeking services from, and expressing concern for those whose lives are affected by those taking action. In theory, the concept of parent participation represents a necessary restructuring of the hierarchical structure in our schools for the full implementation of an effective career guidance program (Shade, 1975). Parental involvement is necessary in comprehensive career guidance programs. The literature is replete with studies indicating that parents can be the most influential role models for their children. "Having some measure of direct control over the environment in which their children are or have been reared allows unique opportunities for them to provide appropriate experiences for self-fulfillment" (American Vocational Association, 1973).

The home often provides the setting in which young people develop self-discipline, values consistent with those of the larger society, acceptance of responsibility, and a desire to discover personal potential. Home-centered guidance practices should build upon the strengths of the home envrionment and the responsibilities, interests, and skills of the parents.

The following are examples of parent practices which can facilitate home-based guidance:

1. Discuss how they view their work role.
2. Involve their children in family decision making.
3. Provide information about and/or exposure to occupational or role alternatives in which their children express an interest.
4. Maintain open communication with the school to facilitate meeting their children's needs.
5. Provide opportunities for their children to work and accept responsibilities in the home and community.
6. Provide cultural and recreational opportunities relating to one's career development.

The school guidance program is instrumental in developing parent awareness of the importance of career development. Assistance can be provided as parents seek answers to the following types of questions:

1. Why career guidance?
2. When does career development begin?
3. Is the home environment related to career development?
4. When should my child begin to explore occupations?

5. How much education and experience does my child need?

6. How much influence should a parent provide the child regarding life role plans?

7. Should a parent encourage the child to work part time while in school? (Herr and Cramer, 1972).

Involvement makes parents more supportive and cooperative rather than dissonant and isolated from the career guidance process.

Community-Based Guidance

The impact of the community on the career development of youth has long been recognized. Abraham Lincoln pointed out the need for cooperative linkages between school and community when he called for a satisfactory combination of education and labor (Easterling, 1974).

For years business has recognized its role in career development. This is illustrated by the following statement:

> The responsibility of industry for more active participation in the preparation of young people who enter industrial employment has increased each year. A complex industrial society, a multiplicity of jobs, and the increasingly urgent need for intelligent citizenship leaves no alternative. Industry is a natural co-partner in the education of tomorrow's full time adult workers. The days when schools were self contained within their institutional walls are past. These walls are being pushed out to encompass the entire community. Industrial and business establishments are becoming the daily laboratories and workshops of both secondary schools and colleges in the all-important task of training youth while they are still in school for jobs of their own choosing (National Association of Manufacturers, 1954).

The focus of this section is on career guidance practices developed by and administered in the community. Practices developed and administered jointly by the school and community are treated briefly. Rural counselors must know and apply techniques that are appropriate for strengthening community relations, using community resources, and providing information about community-centered practices. Members of the community—employers, clergy, experienced workers, and community agency personnel—may be drawn into the guidance team. Some may serve as active members in continuing roles, while others may act as resource persons with special expertise on discrete but recurrent occasions. This use of human resources is essential in the rural school. It permits the inclusion of paraprofessionals to complement the professional staff. Herr (1969) calls for interagency cooperation in the community saying,

> Counselors, by themselves, [cannot] accomplish all the tasks subsumed within a systematic approach to vocational guidance, counseling, and placement which touches effectively the lives of persons of different ages, educational levels, experiences, and occupational history.

Cooperation leads to . . .

> . . . mustering expertise and experience which can combine to respond to individual characteristics in a manner more effective than any given set of specialists or any one setting or agency (Herr, 1969).

Another advantage of community involvement in the overall guidance program is increased student interest. "Many elementary students enjoy having their parents come to school as community resource persons and are fascinated to hear about the tasks they perform in their occupations" (Miguel et al., 1975).

Characteristics of the rural setting promote community involvement. The school is central to the community, a source of pride, and a recipient of financial and moral support. Individual citizens and community groups willingly channel their efforts toward supporting school programs. The guidance component is no exception. The Center for Vocational Education (1974) found that employers and citizens:

1. Are positive about students' spending time in the community.
2. Favor the school's use of on-the-job training experiences.
3. Would, through civic and professional organizations, devote time and effort to the school.

In addition, educators reported positive attitudes for fuller use of community-based guidance opportunities.

The evidence indicates the richness of human resources in the rural community. Rural counselors should cultivate strong working relationships with community members and groups. This expansion of community resources is both realistic and timely.

Although the configuration of community-based guidance programs is specific to each locality, exemplary practices are easily found. For example,

1. Job interview workshops and training sessions, placement services, aptitude and interest assessment, and post-placement evaluation provided by business and industry, employment services, and community colleges
2. Job fairs and exhibits sponsored by local government, business, or civic organizations
3. Work observation programs in business, industrial and governmental settings
4. Work experience, summer and/or holiday employment, apprenticeships, internships, and on-the-job training on salaried or non-salaried bases in local concerns
5. Career information resource centers coordinated through the community's library, government, chamber of commerce, or service organization(s).

Counselors should not only encourage students to take advantage of community-based guidance programs, but should also draw upon the expertise and services available through the following organizations which are frequently found in rural areas:

1. Commercial industries, businesses, or Chamber of Commerce
2. Service and fraternal groups
3. Governmental agencies

4. Labor organizations
5. Religious organizations.

Through effective communication and utilization of community resources, the career guidance program can be expanded to offer a broad range of appropriate learning experience for career development.

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PLACEMENT SERVICES FOR RURAL YOUTH

Susan J. Kosmo

In recent years, growing attention has been focused on the transition of youth into adulthood, with particular emphasis on the assumption of an occupational role (Panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee, 1973). Marland (1972) has suggested that a major responsiblity for this transition should be accepted by educational institutions. Historic and irrefutable links have been forged between education and occupational status (Strong et al., 1975a). In fact, as Silberman (1971) has noted, educational institutions have become the gatekeepers of society:

> Whether spurious or real, the effects are substantially the same: at the very least, a high school diploma, now increasingly a junior college certificate or college diploma, is becoming the prerequisites to a decent job. Thus, education is becoming the gateway to the middle and upper reaches of society, which means that the schools and colleges thereby become the gatekeepers of society. (Silberman, 1971) (p. 69).

Although educational background can be correlated with adult occupational role and income, the process of accomplishing the school-to-work transition has been haphazard, especially for the non-college-bound student. Not only have numerous studies (Campbell, 1968; Kaufman et al., 1967; Shapiro and Asher, 1972) demonstrated that college-bound students are more likely to be the recipients of high school guidance services, but they are also more likely to receive guidance from family members and peers (Shapiro and Asher, 1972). The employment-bound student, the transition from school-to-work has been aptly described by Kaufman et al., 1967.

> In general, the bridge between training and employment is an informal and unstructured one in which the individual's immediate environment is a major factor in determining where he will seek employment. A potential job market whose boundaries are determined by one's own knowledge of opportunities plus the awareness of family and friends is far from being an optimally efficient market in the sense of matching abilities and interests with tasks to be performed (p. 6-23).

In some respects, college-bound students do not fare much better than their employment-bound peers. As Perrone and Lins (1970) have observed, even where an educational plan has been derived for a student, this frequently represents . . . "simply a decision as to which school to enter" (p. 4). Correspondingly, the student's selection of a degree program is frequently not predicted on labor market realities. Women have been noted to be particularly handicapped in occupational entry because of failure to project the career implications of educational decisions (Parrish, 1971).

Because of escalating youth unemployment, government funding has become available for programs which seek to replace the process of haphazard occupational entry with a more effective procedure. Three areas in which these funds have been allocated to schools are: (1) the development of career education programs; (2) the expansion of guidance activities to include the non-college-bound; and (3) the installation of school-based placement services. In this section of the review, an attempt will be made to enumerate the career placement needs of rural youth and relate these to existing school-based models for placement services. The applicability of the placement methods and materials currently available in rural settings will also be considered. The majority of the literature surveyed has been published since 1972. Summaries of school-based placement services prior to this time are available in:

> Ganschow, L. H. et al. *Practical Career Guidance, Counseling and Placement for the Non-college-bound Student: A Review of the Literature.* Palo Alto: American Institutes for Research in the Behavioral Sciences, June 1973.
>
> Strong, M. E. et al. *Review and Synthesis of Job Placement Literature.* Madison, Wis.: Center for Studies in Vocational and Technical Education, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1975.
>
> Wagner, J. F. and Wood, T. R. *Placement and Follow-Up Literature Search: Final Report.* Jacksonville, Fla.: Duval County School Board, 1974.

Definition of Placement

In order to evaluate the status of placement activities in rural schools, the domain of services included in "placement" must be defined. Two major trends in the definition of placement were apparent in the literature. Hammerstrom et al. (1975) have postulated that an individual's career placement is a function of

1. the career opportunities available to the individual;
2. the individual's occupational and educational history; and
3. the guidance the individual has received.

While the first factor relates to the environmental options available, the latter two are perceived as affecting an individual's "place-ability." It is at this juncture that the definitions of placement divide.

For some theorists, placement encompasses all activities which affect the place-ability of students. Examples of such definitions are offered by Gysbers (1970), Allen (n.d.), and Twomey (1975).

> Placement must be viewed as helping students make the next step in generalizing their emerging vocational identity. . . . Such a responsibility goes beyond the actual mechanics of placing a person on a job. In broadest terms the placement responsiblity that all school staff have is to prepare students to become aware, conceptualize, and generalize their vocational identity. This is true particularly for educational personnel who work with rural youth (Gysbers, 1970).
>
> [The placement process] includes accepting the responsibility of assisting the student in the clarification of his education-occupation goals, in providing insight about the labor market as related to his job area of occupational preparation, in evaluating his qualifications and abilities in terms of an opportunity, and in developing the flexibility necessary to adjusting to a fluctuating society. Assisting each individual in making the best possible transition from school to work will require an organized, total-school effort (Allen, n.d.).

Commenting on placement in the rehabilitation process, Twomey (1975) has offered this perspective to counselors:

> From the initial interview, the counselor should be actively directing his attention to the long range goal of placement. Securing and interpreting vocational, psychological, social and medical data; counseling; arranging for extended evaluation; and other services are all activities to help the client become economically independent through meaningful and satisfying work. This shows the total rehabilitation process is a *placement process.*

Consistent with such a viewpoint, placement is perceived as a continuous process rather than a discrete event (Bottoms and Thalleen, 1969; Twomey, 1975). These theorists receive support for their inclusion of preparatory and guidance activities under the pseudonym of placement from those who contend that career development is a lifelong process. The individual is perceived as encountering numerous circumstances in which new decisions regarding placement will be required. Duffin, in his presentation at the Career Placement Workshop (Larsen and Karr, 1973), noted, "A student's first job is a beginning, not an end." In order to be effective, therefore, placement services must provide students with the tools necessary to independently derive and execute career plans (Larsen and Karr, 1973; Kosmo et al., 1975a; Salomone, 1971).

Others have perceived these activities as more appropriately termed "career guidance" (Jones et al., 1973; Prediger et al., 1973) or "career education" (Kennedy, 1974). In this conception, education and guidance focus on enhancing the individual's place-ability while placement activities focus primarily on the manipulation of environmental options. Based on her extensive review of school-based placement services, Ganschow (1973) concluded that placement activities are usually limited to job-finding and follow-up. Follow-up, in this context, is typically performed for reporting purposes. The value of such delimitation of placement has been criticized by Wagner and Wood (1974). They observed that, "In the more successful programs under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 placement was integrated with training and counseling services."

Placement may also be defined by examining the types of activities performed by placement officers. Because placement offices have had a longer operational history in post-secondary institutions, trends in these institutions may have prognostic value for other educational programs. From their survey of placement officers in forty-two public two-year colleges in New York State, Hedlund and Brown (1973) have developed the following profile:

> . . . the typical two year college placement officer would spend his time as follows: career counseling, 19%; finding jobs, 19%; office administration, 15%; transfer counseling, 13%; educational functions such as advising students how to approach an interview, 12%; contacting students, 11%; and college committees, 4%. (pp. 74-75)

This profile has led these authors to conclude that, "There is an increasing convergence of traditional placement activities and vocational guidance activities." Career planning has also become a major activity of placement counselors in four year colleges (Bingham, 1974). McLoughlin (1973) mailed questionnaires to a nationwide sample of college placement directors. Besides job finding activities, the majority of placement directors indicated that they also provided informational services, group counseling, and training in job-seeking techniques. Apparently the trend in post-secondary institutions is toward a convergence of guidance and placement activities.

Gysbers and Moore (1974) have also admonished guidance practitioners that the traditional division of guidance into component service programs is no longer appropriate. They suggest that a "reconceptualization" of guidance is needed

> . . . from an ancillary, crisis-oriented, process-centered only conception, to a comprehensive developmental conception based on personal and societal needs organized programmatically around person-centered goals and activities designed to meet those needs.

Consistent with these remarks, placement shall be defined in this report as encompassing those activities "designed to ensure that each student accomplishes an orderly transition from one institutional setting to the next student-desired level of career preparation, procurement, or advancement" (Kosmo et al., 1975). As Twomey (1975) has observed, ". . . necessary services cannot be defined or listed as any service that contributes to the client's successful entry into the labor market."

Placement Needs of Rural Youth

Career plans of rural youth. Kosmo and Lambert (1975) compared the responses of students from small rural schools and large urban schools to selected items on the Wisconsin Senior Survey. Remarkably similar career cluster goals were embraced by the two samples with 89 percent of the rural sample enumerating non-agricultural careers (see Figure 5).

FIGURE 5

Post-Secondary Plans of Rural and Urban Students

Career Goal by Cluster	Percentage of Seniors	
	Rural	Urban
Unpaid careers	3	2
Agriculture, Agribusiness, and Natural Resources	11	5
Business and Office	16	19
Communications and Media	3	4
Construction	10	7
Consumer and Homemaking Education	3	3
Ecology and Environment	2	3
Fine Arts and Humanities	4	6
Health Occupations	14	15
Manufacturing	7	8
Marine Science	<1	1
Marketing	3	4
Personal Service	3	3
Public Service	14	13
Recreation	3	3
Transportation	3	3
No answer	1	1

This finding is consistent with the diminished farm focus in rural areas. In 1969, not only did the rural nonfarm population comprise approximately 80 percent of the rural population in this country, but of those living on farms, 44 percent were working primarily at nonfarm jobs (U.S. Department of Labor, 1971, p. 117).

Rural students not only embrace heterogeneous career goals, but they also demonstrate great heterogeneity in the pathways they elect in pursuit of these goals. Kosmo and Lambert (1975) report that 34 percent of the rural students indicated their major activity following graduation would be full-time work; 28 percent planned on entering a college or university; 20 percent planned to attend a vocational or technical school; and, the plans of the remaining 18 percent included full-time homemaking, military enlistment, on-the-job training and travel. These students frequently envisioned that relocation would accompany their plans. Almost one-half of the rural students planning to pursue further education indicated that they would do so in a "distant" community and approximately one quarter of those anticipating full-time employment indicated that the job site would be in a "distant" community.

Relocation appears to be related to occupational level. Studies of enrollees in manpower projects indicated that the success of relocation efforts was greater for those employed in skilled areas rather than unskilled or semi-skilled areas (Marshall, 1972). Essex (1972) conducted a follow-up study of 251 farm-reared, male high school graduates in Iowa. Although approximately 70 percent of all the graduates were employed within 30 miles of their home community, almost 85 percent of those who pursued professional employment were employed outside a 60-mile radius. Because of the apparent interrelationship of educational level, occupational status, and relocation, Kosmo and Lambert (1975) have concluded:

> Apparently the decision to pursue further education suggests greater ambiguity for the rural resident. Not only will these students be confronted with a new educational setting, but this will also frequently be coupled with a novel residential situation. Rural students, therefore, must evaluate both the appropriateness of pursuing further education, as well as their ability to accommodate the total life style change it will demand. (p. 5).

Unfortunately, no other studies of the career plans of rural youth were discovered in the materials designated for review.

Placement barriers and facilitators. As mentioned earlier, the placement obtained by an individual appears to be related to the preparation and guidance provided as well as the opportunities available to the individual. Hoyt (1970) has suggested that rural students appear to be particularly handicapped in each of these areas. When compared to their urban counterparts, rural youth are

1. . . . less likely to have manpower programs of vocational training available to them. . . .
2. . . . less likely to have comprehensive programs of vocational education available to them in the elementary and secondary school. . . .
3. . . . less likely to have opportunities for vocational try-out experiences through planned work study programs. . . .
4. . . . less likely to have opportunities for different kinds of specific course offerings in academic areas. . . .
5. . . . less likely to have opportunities to see the breadth of existing occupations in practice. . . .
6. . . . less likely to have opportunities for public post high school occupational education available to them. . . .

7. . . . less likely to have facilities of the United State Training and Employment Service available to them. . . . (pp. 14-15).

In a study in Vermont, Harris (1973) observed that rural low-income adults "have a limited communication network of job information" (p. 263). The major techniques used in job finding were direct employer contact, help wanted ads, and friends and relatives. Only one-third of the adults in Harris' sample used the resources of the State employment service to locate employment.

Strong et al. (1975) examined the occupational roadblocks anticipated by students in small schools. Of those high school seniors who planned to work, the following percentages anticipated each of these to be problems:

1. Not knowing what jobs they would *like* to do: 44 percent
2. Not knowing what types of jobs they *could* do: 33 percent
3. Not knowing where to look for work: 42 percent
4. Lack of experience: 69 percent
5. Lack of openings in area trained for: 56 percent
6. Unable to meet the qualifications: 49 percent
7. Difficulties with interview and application procedures: 23 percent.

When asked to rate the relative value of a variety of guidance services to occupational planning and placement, the students in small schools rated the following to be most important:

1. Help with talking to parents regarding career plans
2. Training for interviewing or applying for a job
3. Written materials about occupations or training programs
4. Job tryouts or work experiences
5. Information about job openings
6. Assistance in locating a specific job
7. Training for a specific occupation
8. Courses on occupations
9. Training in how to get along on the job
10. Help with exploring and evaluating educational goals
11. Help with exploring and evaluating employment goals.

When contrasted with the responses of students from large schools, the small school student appeared to place greater value on the informational services and less value on the counseling services (Strong et al., 1975b).

The acquisition of opportunities for further education also poses difficulties for rural students. Relocation has already been mentioned as a commonplace accompaniment of continued education. Other reasons indicated by rural small school students for not pursuing further education are the following:

1. Lack of money: 44 percent
2. Failure to meet course requirements: 15 percent
3. School is too far from home: 11 percent
4. Work now, school later: 33 percent
5. Plan to marry: 16 percent
6. Dislike of school: 20 percent
7. Prefer to get a job: 43 percent
8. High school program was job-oriented: 11 percent
9. Continued education not valuable: 10 percent. (Kosmo and Lambert, 1975).

Parents have been noted to be a major influence in the career planning of rural youth (Straus, 1964; Crawford, 1966). Picou and Hernandez (1970) examined the influence of parents, teachers, guidance counselors, relatives and friends on the occupational aspirations of rural and urban black disadvantaged youth in Louisiana. Parents were reported to be the most helpful resource by both rural and urban students. From 82 to 90 percent of the students in all groups rated their parents as "very helpful" or offering "some help." Teachers were rated as the second most helpful resources; however their influence was significantly greater among rural students. Guidance counselors were also perceived as more helpful by the rural respondents. Although other relatives and friends rated lower among this disadvantaged sample, in two studies focused on a cross section of rural youth (Kosmo and Lambert, 1975; Strong et al., 1975b), peers were considered by students to exert a major influence in career decisions. Figure 6 illustrates the "helpfulness" ascribed to various key personnel in the career planning of rural and urban youth. There is some indication that when career planning is divided into educational and occupational planning, a slightly different picture emerges (Strong et al., 1975b). When such a division is made, it becomes apparent that the students planning to pursue further education will find that assistance is available from the family, the peer group, and the school. However, employment-bound students will find themselves dependent on the assistance of only the family and the peer group.

Family involvement was an aspect of Project REDY (American Educational Research Association, 1971). A family-centered education program was developed in a rural area and focused on the development of realistic career plans for youth, improving financial management, and increasing family income. As a result of this program, the authors concluded, "Involving the entire family in a vocationally oriented program designed to develop the capabilities of youth is an effective way of obtaining desired changes in the attitudes and aspirations of children and gaining family support for children's desires" (p. 13).

FIGURE 6

"Helpfulness" Ascribed to Key Resource Personnel in Career Planning

	Percent of students indicating receiving "quite a lot" or "some" help	
	Rural small schools	Urban large schools
Parents	90	89
Friends	79	77
Counselors	73	67
Teachers	65	64

Because of the paucity of research available concerning the career placement needs of rural youth, only tentative conclusions can be offered. Some of the consistencies which were suggested in the literature included:

1. Rural students evidence great heterogenity in placement plans.
2. Because of limited local placement opportunities, rural students often encounter the need to relocate.
3. Rural students often face more limited opportunities for gaining the pre-requisites necessary for placement.
4. Family members are influential in career planning.
5. Rural students need improved informational service regarding placement opportunities.

Models for the delivery of placement services to rural youth must be sensitive to the needs of this group. In particular, these preliminary studies suggest that any model adopted must emphasize family and community involvement. The model should focus not only on the recruitment of placement opportunities, but also on increasing the "place-ability" of rural students. The later objective includes enlarging training opportunities and improving the student's ability to delineate and select among various placement options. Existing school-based placement models will be presented and evaluated in terms of their adaptability to rural settings.

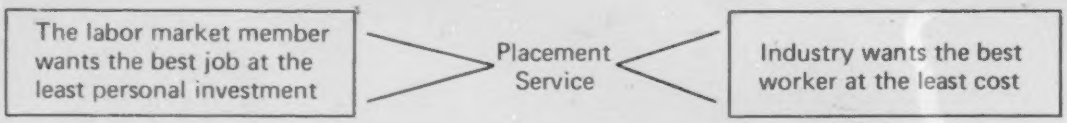
Placement Models

Approached from the global perspective, placement has been defined to include all those activities which are designed to facilitate an orderly transition from one role to another. Since most programs of career education, career guidance, and placement share similar objectives (namely, to facilitate this transition), all of these programs could theoretically be described in this section. However, attention will be concentrated primarily on those programs which have a designated placement component. The other programs have either been reviewed in other sections of the state of the art or do not provide the comprehensive services necessary to a total placement effort. For example, both the Iowa Models for Career Education (State of Iowa, 1973) and the Western States Small Schools project (Cragun and Kartchner, 1969) have applicability to the placement outcome for students, but their focus is on career selection without any procedure for translating this selection into the reality of a placement.

School-based placement services prior to 1973 were reviewed by Wagner and Wood (1974), Ganschow et al. (1973), and Strong et al. (1975b). None of the programs reviewed in these three documents reflected the comprehensive placement focus suggested in the career education movement. Services were not provided to all-students, but rather to select groups, for example, the noncollege-bound, the disadvantaged, or vocational education graduates. In part, this may be due to "an orientation to placement as a discrete event rather than a transition and continuing process" and a "preoccupation with a job placement *versus* educational placement orientation" (Kosmo et al., 1975a). Correspondingly, the most common type of school-based placement program described in these reviews was a "tag-on" job placement service offered to early school leavers and graduating seniors. Furthermore, as Ganschow et al. (1973) has noted, the programs reflected a ". . . lack of emphasis on personalizing these types of assistance so that youths are helped to make decisions and take responsibility for their development" (p. 3-2).

Three models emerged in this review of placement literature: the labor exchange model, the client-centered model, and the client-advocate model.

Labor exchange models. The focus in the labor exchange model is on increasing the employment opportunities available to the student. The mediating role of placement services between employer needs and student needs has been suggested in the following paradigm:


The labor market member wants the best job at the least personal investment
Placement Service
Industry wants the best worker at the least cost

(Strong et al., 1975a)

Placement programs which operate from a labor exchange perspective, therefore, often attempt to encourage employers to use their services by providing pre-screening activities. Such pre-screening theoretically reduces employer's hiring costs. As McCarty (n.d.) has noted:

> It is important to establish early the credibility of the job placement program with employers. One way to do this is to provide the employer with student employees who can adequately perform the job. (p. 19).

The major activity in the labor exchange model is the recruitment of job opportunities. To maintain these listings, placement personnel attempt to provide employers with a ready supply of qualified applicants.

This approach to placement has traditionally been used in post-secondary institutions where graduates possess the designated educational pre-requisites needed for occupational entry. It was also observed to be the most common approach adopted by secondary schools in answering their students' placement needs. (Negley, 1975; Miller and Budke, n.d.; McCrury, 1972; Winter, 1971; Buckingham, 1972; McCarty, n.d.; Anderson and Riordan, 1971; Klaus, 1932; Wagner and Wood, 1974; State of Iowa, 1973; Fowler, 1973; Bristol Career Education Center, 1974; and New Jersey State Department of Education, 1968.) The procedure essentially involves developing a job placement office in the school where applicants register and designate their area of job preference. Through use of the Parsonian model, these applicants are matched with available job openings. The functions of this type of job placement program have been summarized in the Indiana Job Placement Primer (Negley, 1975) as follows: "The job placement program will identify job openings, inform students about openings, and match students with jobs" (p. 3).

Consistent with this focus, program evaluation typically includes only the number of placements obtained with no attempt to relate these to a student's training or goals. For example, of the six programs which used the New Jersey Job Placement Services Model, five used the number of placements obtained as a criteria for program effectiveness. The sixth program failed to include any information concerning the placements obtained. No mention was made in any of these programs as to the consistency of these placements with student goals. In her description of the oldest school-based placement program, that of Baltimore city schools, Ganschow et al. (1973) noted that the only information available for evaluation purposes was the number of placements secured. Another problem which may arise when the placements obtained are equated with the job listings filled was evidenced in a project in Council Bluffs, Iowa. Although counselors informed students of the jobs they located, "many of these jobs were not picked up by the students because they only paid minimum wage or less" (p. 16). This finding is consistent with the observation of Strong et al. (1975b) in their survey of students and placement providers to the importance of low pay in the placement process. Students tended to rate low pay as a major obstacle to employment more frequently than providers. These preliminary findings suggest that the jobs located by providers may not necessarily reflect the needs of students.

An extensive criticism of the labor exchange model for placement has been offered by Kosmo et al. (1975b) in the following remarks:

> The history of the Job Service (Strong et al., March 1975) suggested that although placements may increase when the focus is on a "labor exchange," those providing placement services are likely to feel that their first allegiance is the employer, not the client. Since the success of the exchange is dependent on the securing of openings from employers, placement providers may find it desirable to be selective in the applicants recommended. In such an atmosphere, those in greatest need of placement assistance are the least likely to be served. Another potential danger which arises from the "labor exchange" orientation is the "tabulating-of-numbers trap." It becomes too easy to measure the success of the program by the number of placements secured rather than the relationship of those placements to student needs. The school personnel, correspondingly, may find themselves recruiting students for employers to increase their numbers for accountability purposes. The ethics surrounding the recruitment of students and the school's involvement in screening potential applicants suggested that the operation of an employment office would not be consistent with the focus of public education in a democratic society. It would also serve to further install the schools as the gatekeepers of society.
>
> There was also a very pragmatic reason for not endorsing the labor exchange focus. Numerous agencies already exist which solicit openings from employers. The school would then find itself creating a competitive system. It is doubtful whether the school could realistically compete in this arena since it neither possesses an acknowledged status in this area nor the trained personnel to successfully develop the program. It appeared that a more effective approach was to utilize the resources currently available through the development of cooperative agreements between the schools and these other placement providers. (pp. 33-34).

The major activities in all these programs reflect the emphasis on recruitment of opportunities from employers. The typical approach appears to be to hire a placement specialist to perform the following activities:

1. Select an advisory committee
2. Survey the community for potential job openings
3. Visit employers to solicit openings
4. Develop a clearinghouse for job opportunities
5. Publicize the placement program
6. Refer students to appropriate openings
7. Follow-up on referrals
8. Maintain records of placements obtained.

In many programs, the placement specialist is urged to cooperate with existing resources, particularly the Job Service (Buckingham, 1972; Negley, 1975; New Jersey State Department of Education, 1968; Winter, 1971; and Florida State Department of Education, 1974). It has also been suggested that active involvement in civic organizations and professional associations promotes job development (Fowler, 1973).

Although the major focus is on the development of job opportunities, many of these programs also provide some student development activities (New Jersey State Department of Education, 1968; Winter, 1971; McCrury, 1972; Fowler, 1973; Anderson and Riordan, 1971; Wagner and Wood, 1974; McCarty, n.d.; and Buckingham, 1972). These activities occasionally include group or individual counseling services (McCarty, n.d., and Buckingham, 1972), student appraisal services (New Jersey State Department of Education, 1968, and Anderson and Riordan, 1971), the development of student clubs to explore career goals (New Jersey State Department of Education, 1968), and the involvement of students in the operation of the placement service (McCarty, n.d., and New Jersey State Department of Education, 1968). In some instances, the placement personnel are perceived as having only secondary responsibility for these services. The primary responsibility is delegated to the counseling and instructional staff with consultation available from the placement personnel. One approach to delegating the diverse student development and job development services has been suggested at Arizona State University (Menke and Regner, 1975). The Student Counseling Center retains responsibility for testing and counseling; the academic faculty provides career advising, including educational and occupational advising; and the placement staff provide informational services, guest speakers, and training in interviewing techniques aside from their direct responsibilities in the operation and publicizing of the placement program.

Despite some attempts to provide student development activities in the placement program, the most frequent approach is to limit such activities to training in job securing skills and providing occupational information. Students are often given instruction and practice in interviewing techniques, resume preparation, application procedures, and locating job leads. At State Fair Community College (Fowler, 1973) students participate in Job Seminars related to the fundamentals of obtaining a job. In San Antonio (McCrury, 1972) graduating seniors are offered one day seminars in job procedures during which they receive booklets containing lists of interview "do's" and "don'ts" and common sources of job leads. Another aspect common to many of the labor exchange models is the inclusion of an occupational information component (Wagner and Wood, 1974; New Jersey State Department of Education, 1968; McCrury, 1972; Winter, 1971; Fowler, 1973; Anderson and Riordan, 1971; Negley, 1975; and Buckingham, 1972). The activities in this area included acquiring and disseminating local labor market information and information on labor market trends. Informational services also encompassed locating guest speakers, sponsoring career days and job fairs, and assisting teachers with field trips.

In summary, the major focus in the labor exchange model appears to be the recruitment of employment opportunities. Students are also frequently provided with training in the procedures for obtaining employment. The placement program may also include an occupational information component. However, the focus of all these components is on the students as a group rather than on individual student's needs. As such, evaluation criteria tend to be quantitative rather than qualitative. Outcomes are measured in terms of number of placements obtained, number of students requesting information, etc., rather than the compatibility of the service to the students' goals.

The applicability of the labor exchange model in small rural schools would appear to be limited because of its emphasis on recruitment of local job opportunities. For the following reasons, this approach is negated in rural settings:

1. A large number of students will need to relocate to find suitable educational placements. Those students seeking to work part-time to meet their educational expenses will need to locate opportunities in the city of relocation rather than their home community.

2. Even for those seeking immediate employment, rural communities frequently present limited options. Many students would be unable to locate employment compatible with their career goals even with the assistance of a listing service in the school.

3. The labor market in a rural community is more likely to be familiar to the student than the impersonal urban market. Students often are not only familiar with the placement opportunities available, but they are aware of the entry procedures and may even have personal associations with those responsible for hiring.

4. The labor exchange model depends on the satisfaction of employers' needs for its success. This situation presupposes that an adequate supply of applicants are available from which to select. Because of the smaller enrollments of rural schools and the diverse interests of students, it may not be possible to consistently provide the desired supply.

5. These models frequently suggest the hiring of additional personnel to provide this service. Limited funding resources in rural schools may make the hiring of additional personnel impossible.

Because of the costs associated with the development of the labor exchange model and the limited number of students who could be served, the advisability of such a model seems questionable in rural settings.

Client-centered models. In contrast to the labor exchange model, the client-centered model is focused almost solely on increasing the "place-ability" of the client. No attempt is made to solicit openings from employers.

In 1971, Salomone advocated that rehabilitation counselors replace selective placement with client-centered placement. He noted the following benefits of this approach:

> The client-centered placement approach requires the client to assume the major responsibility for securing job links, for contacting employers, and for performing the necessary follow-up activities where employment applications have been left with personnel men. Therefore, it is likely that the client may experience feelings of self satisfaction and confidence when he obtains his job. He feels a commitment to himself to retain the job as long as the employment situation is less painful than his previous job-seeking efforts. In addition, by seeking and finding his own job, the client has learned the specific placement techniques that can ensure his future job-hunting successes. (pp. 267-268).

The counselor's responsibilities include providing information to the client on sources of job leads, interviewing techniques, appropriate appearance, application procedures, and follow-up contacts. Rehabilitation clients may also receive occupational training and various guidance services, including testing, information, counseling, and career planning. However, in the client-centered approach, the counselor's responsibilities do not extend to direct employer contact. In his summary of this approach, Salomone (1971) indicates:

> The key to placement success requires (a) prior vocational counseling that has led to a realistic vocational goal for the client, (b) a client-centered placement effort that focuses on building client responsibility and comprehensive job-seeking skills, and (c) an attitude of unrealistic optimism that increases the client's confidence while job-hunting and that sustains him through inevitable placement disappointments. (p. 270).

The client-centered model is also depicted in Ziegler's "Creative Job Search Technique" (1974) which has received widespread attention in Canada. The strategy in this program is to teach individuals to sell themselves to employers. During the two 90-minute sessions which comprise the program, the enrollees learn to assess their aptitudes in terms of the labor market. They also receive concrete information on locating job leads, contacting employers, preparing effective resumes, and appropriate interview behavior. As a result of the Creative Job Search Technique (1974), "graduates no longer go into the market place asking for work—they go with recognized skills that they will know how to sell" (p. 36). The effectiveness of the technique has been evaluated with several groups. The results suggest an average success rate of 80 percent.

In another Canadian program, "Creating a Career," unemployed and underemployed youth participate in a group program designed:

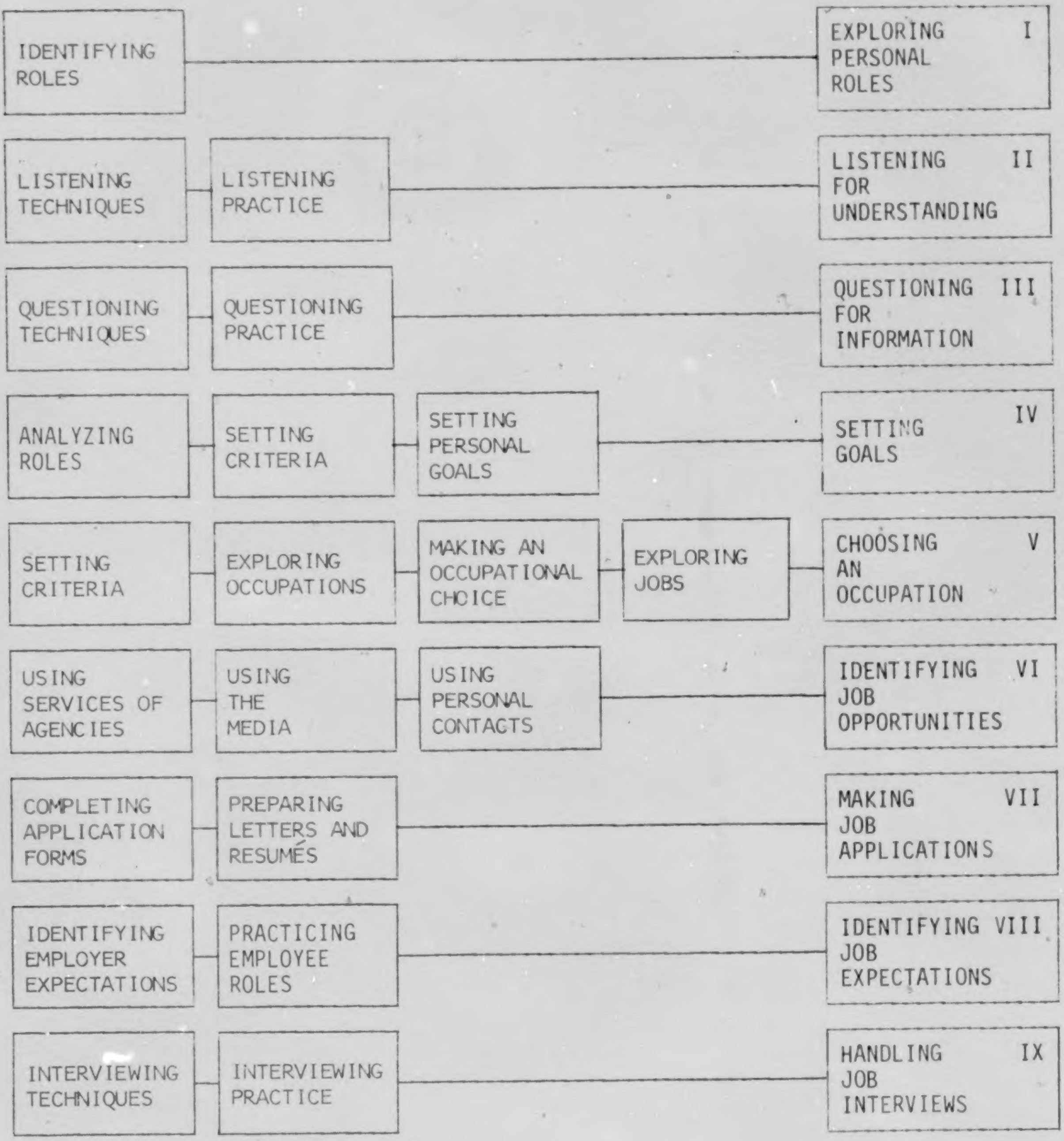
> To have youth prepare a realistic plan to achieve an appropriate career goal.
>
> To have students demonstrate appropriate job search and job application techniques and the ability to function within employer expectations. (Training Research and Development Station, 1974, p. 4).

The content of the program developed to achieve these objectives appears in Figure 7. The focus is clearly on student skill development and the trainers are not involved in job solicitation or development.

A particular benefit of the client-centered approach with rural youth appears to be its strong emphasis on developing student independence in placement-securing skills. This training would be particularly valuable for the many students who will find it necessary to relocate to a less familiar labor market. Training in application and interview procedures and occupational information were rated among the major guidance services perceived as valuable by rural students (Strong et al., 1975b).

FIGURE 7

Creating a Career Content Chart


IDENTIFYING ROLES
EXPLORING PERSONAL ROLES I
LISTENING TECHNIQUES
LISTENING PRACTICE
LISTENING FOR UNDERSTANDING II
QUESTIONING TECHNIQUES
QUESTIONING PRACTICE
QUESTIONING FOR INFORMATION III
ANALYZING ROLES
SETTING CRITERIA
SETTING PERSONAL GOALS
SETTING GOALS IV
SETTING CRITERIA
EXPLORING OCCUPATIONS
MAKING AN OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE
EXPLORING JOBS
CHOOSING AN OCCUPATION V
USING SERVICES OF AGENCIES
USING THE MEDIA
USING PERSONAL CONTACTS
IDENTIFYING JOB OPPORTUNITIES VI
COMPLETING APPLICATION FORMS
PREPARING LETTERS AND RESUMÉS
MAKING JOB APPLICATIONS VII
IDENTIFYING EMPLOYER EXPECTATIONS
PRACTICING EMPLOYEE ROLES
IDENTIFYING JOB EXPECTATIONS VIII
INTERVIEWING TECHNIQUES
INTERVIEWING PRACTICE
HANDLING JOB INTERVIEWS IX

Source: Training Research and Development Station, 1974, p. 7.

Nevertheless, sole focus on the client-centered approach negates the importance of previous preparation as a major variable affecting placement. As in the labor exchange model, placement is perceived as a discrete event rather than a continuous process in which occupational and educational decisions continually interact to affect future placement options. The emphasis on the individual also tends to ignore the major influence of family and peers in the career decision-making process. Furthermore, the approach suggests that there is no need to alter the status quo in the labor market. Affirmative action programs, however, have demonstrated that an active manipulation of entry requirements may be necessary to increase the participation of key groups in the labor market. As mentioned earlier, a major reason for relocation has been the limited job and educational opportunities in rural communities. The client-centered approach would not promote the development of greater opportunities because of its failure to place any responsibility on the community for the placement needs of its youth.

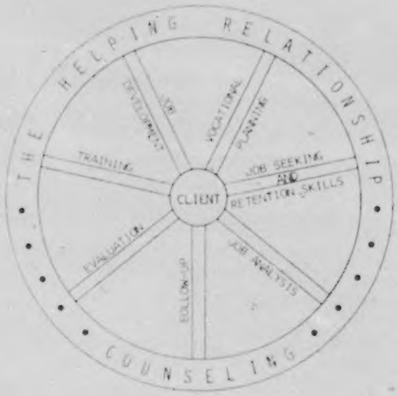
Client-advocate models. In the client-advocate model, placement is perceived as both a function of client skills and the availability of opportunities. Placement, from this perspective "is viewed as being integral to the guidance function, and to both program planning for the institution and career planning for the individual" (Morgan et al., 1970, p. 17). The actual services provided to an individual are based on the unique needs presented.

This type of placement model has been graphically depicted (Figure 8) by Twomey (1975) who notes:

> The placement . . . process can be compared to a wheel with each client so unique and so individual that the wheel must be reinvented or reconstructed to meet the specific needs of the individual. Each spoke in the wheel can be equated with a particular service, e.g., referral, diagnosis, training, etc., in the placement process. The client is the hub, and the counseling relationship is the rim which holds it all together. (pp. 3.1 to 3.2).

FIGURE 8

A Balanced Wheel



Source: "Placement of the Severely Disabled," Twomey, 1975, p. 3-2.

Twomey further emphasizes the importance of a balanced wheel and provides several instances where difficulties can arise. If the rim of the wheel is enlarged, it reflects a situation in which decisions are being made for, rather than with, the client. An enlarged hub reflects too little counselor involvement due to a belief that "somehow the client will rehabilitate himself and find his own job."

Each of these situations has been described as a potential danger in the "labor exchange" and "client-centered" models, respectively. Since the spokes of the wheel represent services, another possible problem which may occur involves overemphasis or underemphasis of particular activities. As Twomey noted, "Too much emphasis on training and too little emphasis on job-seeking skills could produce a well-trained client who cannot get a job. . . ."

Several school-based models which focus on individual student needs were found in the literature. Those models which were operational tended to focus on either urban disadvantaged students or rural students. A capsule description of several of these models has been included.

Job Upgrading Project: Detroit, Michigan (McCarthy, 1970)

This is a voluntary program sponsored by the Detroit school system for dropouts and potential dropouts. Thirty students were assigned to a coordinator. An individual curriculum was designed for each student based on his or her needs and goals. Although the program is housed within the high school, work experience stations are available to students in the community. Both placement and follow-through services are available. The follow-through component includes monthly contacts with the client over a six-month period.

Dusable Exemplary Project: Chicago, Illinois (Dumetz, 1973)

This comprehensive program for disadvantaged adolescents includes occupational training, career guidance, and job placement. Similar to the Detroit program, student enrollment is voluntary. The training available to students included automotive services, data processing, food services, general clerical procedures, offset printing, and typing. Group sessions in appearance, interviewing, and other pre-employment skills were also offered. Among the other services mentioned were individual counseling, testing, field trips, and occupational information.

Total community involvement was sought. Parents, employers and the Job Service participated in the project and assisted with job placement of students.

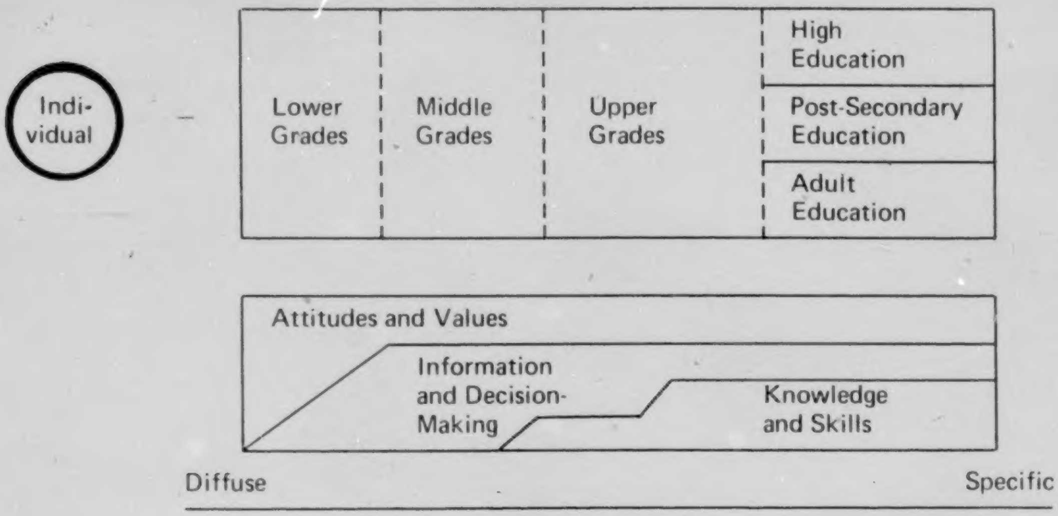
Career Awareness, Orientation, and Placement Program: Wayne County, West Virginia (Perdue, 1972)

Wayne County was described as a rural depressed area according to the Economic Development Administration. The project's goals included increasing elementary school students' awareness of vocational possibilities, and increasing the occupational information and exploratory courses available to junior high school students. At the senior high level, the focus was on counseling students regarding the vocational curriculum and placement of vocational education students. An additional full time counselor was hired in the senior high school. The program included testing, information, counseling, and work try-outs. Placement efforts appeared to be based on individual student needs. A wide variety of community agencies were consulted in the placement process.

Rural Occupational Education Program: Wake County, North Carolina (Morgan et al., 1970, and Carroll, n.d.)

Morgan et al. (1970) have presented the following model for the occupational education program in Wake County:

FIGURE 9



The authors have described the model in the following manner:

> In the lower grades, the major emphasis is placed on the development of attitudes and habits with concommitant emphasis placed on expanding horizons and providing information regarding the world of work. The development of attitudes and habits continues throughout the school system and the educational career. In the middle grades, the emphasis is placed on information and decision-making. Here there is concern for both access to information and knowledge of alternatives which are available to the individual. Orientation to work is an essential element to the informational system. . . . At the upper grades and in the higher, post secondary and adult levels, major emphasis is placed on the acquisition of skills which will enable the individual to perform effectively in an entry level occupation and to continue to progress in his career at his optimum level of employment at any given point in time. (p. 14).

This comprehensive program involved the introduction of several new personnel at the elementary, middle, and secondary levels. At the high school level a counselor-coordinator was hired to provide occupational counseling and job placement services. A General Occupational Education Coordinator was also hired to develop training programs which would provide students with entry level occupational skills. Special Courses Personnel were to be assigned to provide the necessary training. The resources of local community agencies were also recruited in student placement.

All of the above programs appear to have achieved an integration of instructional, guidance, and placement programs in an attempt to ease the school to work transition encountered by students.

They also emphasize both student development and opportunity development. Unfortunately, none of these programs is truly comprehensive in the sense of serving all students. In the first two programs, only disadvantaged students are served; in the third, only vocational education students; and in the fourth, only the employment-bound. In part, this may be due to the naive assumption that the college-bound are already being adequately served. However, whatever the rationale, this narrow focus is not consistent with a major goal of career education which is as Wagner and Wood (1974) have indicated, that the schools must be concerned with the career needs of *all* students.

A model designed to meet the placement needs of all secondary and post-secondary students was developed at the Center for Studies in Vocational and Technical Education (Kosmo et al., 1975a). Elements of this model are now being tested in several schools throughout Wisconsin. Figure 10 illustrates the elements of this coordinated and comprehensive Career Placement Delivery System (CPDS). Dependent on an assessment of student needs, a mix of services and personnel are selected to achieve the two major goals: maximizing student career independence and maximizing the opportunities available to students. Student career independence was hypothesized to be facilitated when the student

a. Has formulated a career identity as an integral component of the self-concept

b. Can determine and develop appropriate career planning strategies

c. Possesses the necessary preparation and experience for entry into or progression within several career pathways

d. Can utilize alternative educational, occupational, or community resources for the implementation of career plans

e. Can critically re-evaluate and/or change career pathways. (Kosmo et al., 1975a, p. 6).

The CPDS suggests a need for close cooperation with community agencies and "informal" placement providers if students are to achieve the opportunities they desire. The actual degree to which schools would participate in the solicitation of placement opportunities was considered to be dependent on

a. the degree to which the student has achieved competency in placement-securing skills;

b. the degree to which the formal and informal placement network operates in a cooperative manner with the school; and

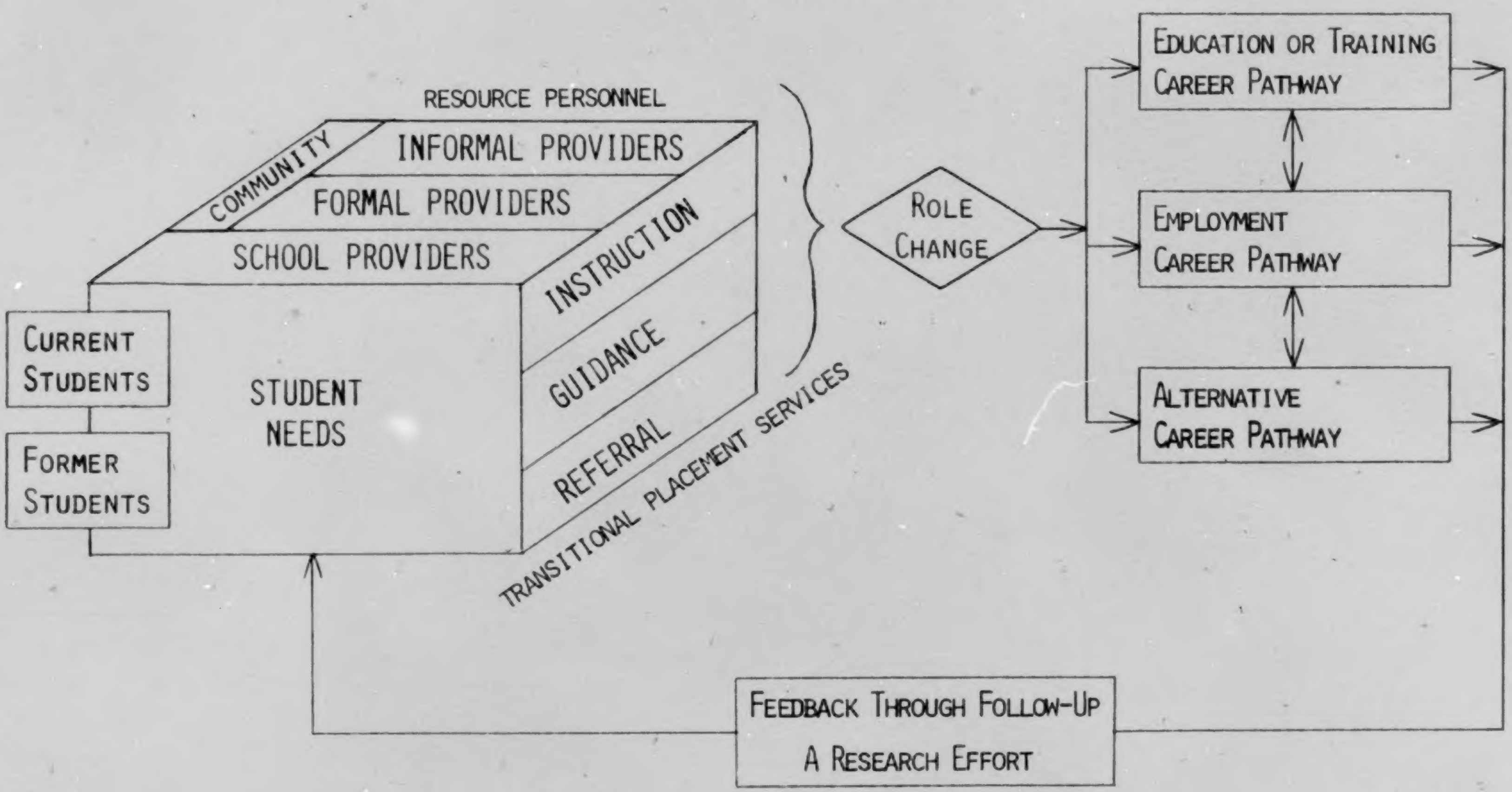
c. the degree to which the student's placement needs can be met by existing resources. (Kosmo et al., 1975a, pp. 16-17).

The model also suggests that a systems approach be used for development, installataion, and evaluation of the placement system. In the evaluation area, the authors suggest that the emphasis should be placed on the nature of the placements obtained rather than the number of placements.

The client-advocate model appears to be the most consistent with the career education approach. It recognizes the interrelationship of educational and occupational experiences and suggests the need for total school and community involvement. This model also stresses the importance of individualizing services. Ganschow et al. (1973) have warned that

FIGURE 10

A School-Based Career Placement Delivery System


RESOURCE PERSONNEL
COMMUNITY
INFORMAL PROVIDERS
FORMAL PROVIDERS
SCHOOL PROVIDERS
INSTRUCTION
GUIDANCE
REFERRAL
TRANSITIONAL PLACEMENT SERVICES
CURRENT STUDENTS
FORMER STUDENTS
STUDENT NEEDS
ROLE CHANGE
EDUCATION OR TRAINING CAREER PATHWAY
EMPLOYMENT CAREER PATHWAY
ALTERNATIVE CAREER PATHWAY
FEEDBACK THROUGH FOLLOW-UP
A RESEARCH EFFORT

> . . . the organizing, human core of career education is in its personal needs and individual planning activities. . . . However, without individual planning, career education either imposes society's goals on youths or confuses students by not informing them of the goals and objectives of their instructional activities. (p. 7-6).

Unfortunately, the client-advocate model also appears to be the most difficult to install. It requires total school commitment to meeting students' transitional placement needs. This would require realignment of counselor, teacher, and administrator functions.

Despite this criticism, the client-advocate model appears to be remarkably well suited to rural settings. Because of more personal community associations and less bureaucratic school structures in rural settings, the atmosphere appears to be more conducive to acquiring the needed support. Also, the diverse needs of rural students as well as their smaller number suggest that this may be the most effective placement model for rural schools. Aside from these observations, the client-advocate model also appears to be the most consistent with a comprehensive guidance approach. As Jones et al. (1973) note, the following assumptions characterize a comprehensive system:

> 1. Guidance, counseling, and placement programs must take the major responsibility in education for helping to develop and protect the individuality of students.
>
> 2. Guidance, counseling, and placement programs must help each student to be a problem solver.
>
> 3. Guidance, counseling, and placement programs must be based on students' needs and must serve all career-related needs of all students in each academic level.
>
> 4. Guidance, counseling, and placement objectives and procedures must be integrated into the basic instructional process of the school.
>
> 5. A comprehensive guidance system must involve both developmental and prescriptive help for student problems.
>
> 6. A responsive guidance system requires repeated experimentation and rigorous evaluation including continued investigation of cost-effectiveness, cost-efficiency, and cost-benefits. (p. 4).

Methods and Materials

The review of the placement needs of rural youth and an examination of existing placement models suggest that the following components are necessary in a comprehensive placement approach:

1. Total school staff involvement

2. Community participation

3. Student participation

4. Instruction in preparatory skills

5. Career appraisal services

6. Informational services

7. Career counseling services

8. Preparation for relocation

9. Training for placement securing and maintaining skills

10. Placement solicitation and development

11. Follow-through services.

Although in some areas, particularly in the appraisal and informational services, numerous methods and materials were located, other areas have received only cursory attention. Rather than detail all the methods and materials available, a short synopsis of those especially applicable to the needs of rural youth is included.

Total school staff involvement. In recent years, there appears to be a trend toward designating teachers as having responsibility for career advising (Menke and Regner, 1975; Carricato, 1973; Gray, 1973; and Hale, 1973). Interestingly, this role was frequently assigned to faculty members before guidance counselors began to assume a major role in the schools. Hale (1973) has differentiated career advising from career counseling and career planning:

> The term *career advising* is used to describe that form of academic advising that a faculty person does to translate career choices into educational goals and programs and to relate academic curricula to career opportunities. *Career counseling* refers to the psychological procedures used in helping a student with self-evaluation and recognition of capabilities and interests, as differentiated from *career planning* which refers to the process of relating the outcome of that evaluation to information currently available about the world of work. (p. 36).

At a Rockville, Maryland, high school (Caricatto, 1973), selected teachers were offered released time from some instructional responsibilities in order to provide individual career counseling services to the students.

Gray (1974) has suggested that a faculty team approach may be particularly effective in meeting the placement needs of rural youth. Faculty members are recruited for the team on the basis of their interest in youth. The team may also include local businessmen and parents. The following advantages of this approach have been suggested:

> A team approach to placing seniors has several advantages over other types of organization. First, a student's instructor can supply accurate information about his skills. We found early that placing a student in a job he is undertrained for can be a great disservice. Secondly, placement often involves motivation, support, and personal concern. A number of adults providing this type of support is dynamic.
>
> The team approach is particularly promising for small schools. It is an excellent alternative for rural schools that have no guidance services. (Gray, 1974, p. 36).

The importance of faculty and administrative support for educational innovations was documented in studies conducted by the Kettering Commission and Colgate University (Schlesser, 1971).

Faculty support for new programs was related to the knowledge and use of innovations by faculty members and the overall climate of the school. Administrative support was found to be essential to the acceptance of new programs. As Schlesser (1971) noted, "The administration needs to provide some kind of an 'umbrella' under which teachers can try new ideas without fear and with support" (p. 69).

Community participation. A wide variety of suggestions is offered in the various placement handbooks for incorporating community members in the placement process. In terms of business and industry participation, suggestions frequently include speeches to businessmen's groups, job surveys, field trips to the employment sites, inviting businessmen to be guest speakers, contests supported by businessmen, partnership schools in which a local business or industry virtually adopts the school, and asking for businessmen's participation on advisory councils. Burt (1971) has enumerated the following ways in which business and labor can help the schools improve the relevancy of their curricular offerings:

1. providing personnel as resource teachers, club leaders, etc.
2. participating in curricular development and content evaluation
3. offering industrial equipment, samples of materials and products
4. providing technical books, trade magazines, etc.
5. describing entry level jobs, skills, and requirements.

In contrast to the many suggestions for encouraging business and industry involvement, very little attention has been directed toward encouraging parental involvement. Cinque (1974) and Carroll (n.d.) have suggested that parents be recruited as guest speakers and provide students with occupational information about the jobs they hold. As previously mentioned, Gray (1974) has included parents as possible members of placement teams. Nevertheless, Project REDY (American Educational Research Association, 1971) has demonstrated that much greater outreach to parents is necessary to impact on the career decision-making process of rural disadvantaged youth. In this project, a well-organized educational program was developed for parents and included the following aims: "(1) determining realistic career choices and plans for the children, (2) improving family financial management, and (3) improving the family income" (p. 3). The only other suggestions related to parental participation focused on their inclusion on advisory committees. In summary, few attempts have been made to include rural parents in an organized career placement program despite consistent evidence that they are the major influence on youth's career decisions.

Student participation. The importance of student participation in the implementation of a placement program is often mentioned in placement manuals. However, again, there are few suggestions related to *how* to involve students. Most remarks suggest that students assume some of the clerical responsibilities associated with the operation of the placement program. An exception to this approach was found in Project Vigor (McCaleb, 1973) where students assumed sole responsibility for the operation of a high school job center.

Another novel approach to student involvement was offered through the Vocational Guidance Institute in Los Angeles (Loring and Nortman, 1971). The institute encouraged the development of local guidance teams, termed "Vocational Information Coordinating Committees (VICC's)." One VICC was composed entirely of student members who, after training for the institute, would return to their school to provide vocational guidance and placement services. Unfortunately, little information was available on the effectiveness of this student VICC.

Career preparation. One of the major problems faced by rural youth has been the more limited training opportunities available in rural settings. Because of the expense of obtaining equipment, vocational education programs are also often more limited in rural high schools. Morgan et al. (1970), and Budke and Magisos (n.d.) have suggested that greater use of community co-ops and work experience programs can assist in the occupational preparation of rural youth. In North Carolina (Morgan et al., 1970), vestibule programs are short term, intensive employment programs offered by occupational education specialists from the community. Winter (1971) has suggested another alternative for rural settings through the use of non-credit summer "hands on" work experience. Students in Pottawattamie County, Iowa, were bused from up to fifty miles away into Council Bluffs for experience in electronics, vocational home economics, power mechanics, drafting, graphic arts, machine tool operation, office education, and welding. Although developed in an urban area, the description of project S.P.A.C.E., School Program and Career Education, (Bonitatebus, 1973) suggests it may be applicable in rural settings. In this program, students attend school for two weeks, and then work for two weeks. Their school experiences are related to their work experiences. To increase the level of occupational preparation of rural youth, the current emphasis appears to be on increasing students' experiences in both the local labor market and the labor markets of nearby urban areas.

Appraisal services. Because an entire section, "Assessment for Guidance," of this document is devoted to assessment, no attempt will be made to duplicate that effort here.

Informational services. Informational services are almost uniformly accepted as a logical activity of a placement service. The techniques of providing career information vary from the traditional approaches including guest speakers, field trips, catalogues and printed materials, and audiovisual materials to the relatively recent introduction of computerized systems. Excellent summaries of the variety of career informational resources are available in Dubato (1967), Brown et al. (n.d.), and Willingham et al. (1972). DeBlassie and Ludeman have surveyed several approaches being used in rural settings to improve the information available to students; however, they noted that the major problem was "keeping current" (p. 26). Multimedia approaches and field experiences were suggested as ways to confront this problem.

Two novel approaches to career information which are receiving attention are the use of career clubs and the creation of career resource centers. The career clubs (Brown et al., n.d.) and Career Counseling and Placement Project (1975) are reminiscent of organizations such as the Future Farmers of America and Future Homemakers of America. Students with similar career interests voluntarily form an organization. Guest speakers and field trips are sponsored by the groups. In a monograph prepared for the National Vocational Guidance Association, Miller and Leonard (1974) have labelled the career resource center as "one of the more exciting developments in the area of occupational information systems." The career resource center

> becomes the focal point for coordinating career guidance activities within the school building. These centers contain a large variety of information resources needed for career planning including both written and audiovisual materials. Also, there is space for small groups to meet and facilities for individual interviews. These centers are staffed with a variety of resource people including counselors, paraprofessionals, students, volunteers, and media specialists. The rationale is to use the career resource center both as a physical meeting place for career guidance activities and to provide consultation to teachers regarding career guidance materials and activities which can be used in the classroom setting. (p. 39).

Budget limitations, however, may affect materials acquisition and some rural schools may wish to coordinate their ordering with that of nearby schools. In this manner materials could be exchanged among schools. Nevertheless, many excellent free materials are available. The "Counselor's Information Service" published by the B'Nai B'rith organization contains a list of these materials.

Counseling services. Because an entire section, "Assessment for Guidance," of this document is devoted to counseling activities, no attempt will be made to duplicate that effort here.

Relocation. After leaving high school, many rural youth find it necessary to relocate to secure suitable placement. Despite the frequent occurrence of relocation, none of the materials sent to this author for review contained any descriptions of programs or techniques to facilitate the relocation process.

Training in placement-securing and maintaining skills. Placement-securing and maintaining skills are defined as the skills directly linked to the entry process associated with employment, further education or training, or any other career placement. The various career options available to students often require that the students complete a screening process involving applications, interviews, formal testing, resumes, appearance, etc. Secondly, after the student has secured the desired placement, he or she must possess the skills necessary to maintain that placement. Appropriate work habits, study habits, attitudes, and interpersonal skills are stressed.

The review of placement materials revealed that the recent focus has been on pre-employment skills, specifically application and interview procedures. The emphasis placed on these skills varied with the program from a hand-out of written materials detailing application and interview techniques to single-session or one-day seminars focused on the necessary skills (Gray, 1974; McCrury, 1972). A more extensive approach has been offered to the disadvantaged student as in the "Creating a Career" program offered to Canadian youth (Training Research and Development Station, 1974) and in the Dusable Exemplary Project (Dumetz, 1973). Although the former approach is clearly the most efficient, it relies solely on a cognitive instructional approach. Since no evidence is presented in the literature as to the effectiveness of cognitive approaches to employability training, the impact of written materials, seminars, and assemblies remains questionable.

No materials were located in the recent literature related to training in the entry procedures associated with other career pathways, e.g., continued education, apprenticeships, military opportunities, self-employment, etc. Furthermore, little attention has been directed toward the skills necessary for maintaining a placement once it has been secured. Occasionally, follow-through programs are offered to employment-bound students to assist with their adjustment in a job (Gray, 1974).

Rural students' needs in terms of placement-securing and maintaining skills did not appear to be addressed in any of the literature surveyed. For example, no programs were discussed which dealt with preparing rural students with the skills necessary for urban living despite the large proportion of students which will relocate to urban settings. Training in these social skills may be as necessary in the successful adjustment to college life or employment as training in effective study skills and work habits. Furthermore, because of the limited opportunities in rural settings, many of those students who wish to remain in their home communities may need knowledge in the skills associated with self-employment.

Apparently, more attention needs to be directed toward determining the skills and knowledge necessary for the acquisition and maintenance of various placement options. This need appears to be particularly acute in rural settings where the transitional process often involves acclimation to a variety of unfamiliar situations.

Placement solicitation and development. Placement solicitation and placement development have been defined by Kosmo et al. (19751) in the following manner:

> Placement solicitation refers to the direct contact of an employer or training agency for the purpose of securing a particular job or training opportunity for student. (p. 15).
>
> Placement development activities . . . refer to activities designed to redefine the qualifications necessary for entry into the desired placement. (p. 17).

The methods and materials surveyed were directed primarily at the solicitation of job placement openings. There appeared to be two major steps in the solicitation process: locating available openings through a community survey and direct employer contact.

Several forms are available for identifying local job placement opportunities (Ohio CVTE, 1973; Negley, 1975; Prairie View A & M University, n.d.; Anderson and Riordan, 1971). Kosmo et al. (1975b) have summarized the information requested on these forms:

1. Job title and description
2. Nature of job: part-time, full-time, permanent or temporary; hours of day
3. Qualifications for employment: educational or training requirements, special skills necessary, physical requirements, etc.
4. Age requirements
5. Union membership or licensure requirements
6. Number of openings: current, anticipated
7. Number of persons currently employed under the job title
8. Receptivity to hiring handicapped
9. Contact person
10. Hiring procedures
11. Advancement procedures
12. Availability of on-the-job training. (p. 40).

Twomey (1975) has suggested that the following agencies can help in locating the employers to survey: Employment Service, Chamber of Commerce, State Industrial Guide, and the State Apprenticeship Council.

After locating potential job openings, the focus shifts to direct employer contact. Again, most of the job placement manuals offer suggestions to counselors on how to approach employers. They emphasize that the counselor must be able to anticipate the employers' hiring needs and be able to offer him or her a more efficient technique to meeting these needs than is currently being used. The experiences of the Vocational Guidance Institute (Loring and Nortman, 1971) suggest the need for preparing counselors for employer contact. In these institutes, training was offered in "how to" interview employers which emphasized a "constructive, information-gathering attitude and not an attitude of attempting to change the behavior of the system being interviewed" (p. 35). Because of this orientation, job placement manuals tend to be replete with forms for filing employer requests and suggestions for screening applicants. They also advocate increasing employer contacts through speeches to businessmen's groups and involvement in local community activities.

Follow-through services. In the original outline for this report, follow-through was included as a major topic; however, follow-through later appeared to be too closely related to placement to treat separately. McCarty (n.d.) has emphasized the importance of providing comprehensive follow-through services because of the different levels of career readiness of students at the time of placement. Comprehensive services, to McCarty, include continued career planning, counseling, employer contact, peer meetings, and supportive services for those attempting to change career direction. Unfortunately, this approach to follow-through appears to exist on a theoretical rather than empirical basis. In most instances, the follow-through component of the placement program involved only a contact to ensure that the student had actually obtained the placement. In Mt. Ararat (Gray, 1974), however, students are required to attend two group sessions after placement to discuss job-keeping behavior. As Gray (1974) has concluded, "follow-up is, first of all, support" (p. 36).

Summary. This overview of methods and materials related to placement suggests the following conclusions:

1. Most of the materials and methods reported in recent literature are directed toward *job* placement activities only. The other career pathways attempted by students have received little, if any, attention.

2. With the exception of improving the occupational preparation of students and the career information available to them, few of the methods and materials developed have been expressedly related to the needs of rural youth. Specifically, techniques for preparing rural youth for the inevitable relocation many encounter are lacking.

3. Little attention has been devoted to evaluating the effectiveness and cost efficiency of the various methods and materials available. Without such information, it is not possible to evaluate the benefits of these procedures, let alone their applicability in rural settings.

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EVALUATION

Wayne Hammerstrom

Plan. Execute. Evaluate. This scheme has been the accepted pattern of accomplishing a goal. Many different nouns and verbs can describe this same pattern, e.g., design, implement, assess. Yet regardless of the labels used, the scheme has been generally viewed as having distinct and separate elements or phases: a plan is established . . . the plan is operationalized . . . results are determined.

Times have changed and so have our tools and methods. With increasing sophistication, planning, implementing and evaluating have become more precisely defined and more effectively used. Examples can be found easily: predetermination of objectives, management through systems analysis, use of formative and summative evaluation methods. These are not, however, new labels for the old scheme. A change has evolved. Planning, implementing and evaluating are no longer seen as distinct and separate. Instead, they are viewed inseparable and interdependent. Planning contributes to implementation and evaluation, and feeds back to new planning. As Mager (1962) describes the preparation of behavioral objectives, terminal (evaluative) criteria are simultaneously determined with the formation of the goal itself. Likewise, several new evaluation models include analysis of the environmental context and inputs preceding and affecting the results achieved in the end.

Evaluation has long been the weakest link in the scheme with planning and implementation. In the day-to-day implementation operations and activities of the "job to be done" much of the available time and energy are consumed. If one assumes that "a stitch in time saves nine," the anticipation and foresight of planning can improve operations and save time and energy. Yet, planning does more. It focuses attention toward overall goals from which daily activities develop. Planning needs to include identification of the purpose toward which all else is directed. Lastly, and often with the lowest priority, is evaluation. What was accomplished and how well? Of what value is the effort of the work?

Many people do not fully understand the function of evaluation. They are confused about what to evaluate, how to accomplish it, when to do it and for what purpose. Unfortunately, what some evaluators do report is not evaluation at all, but is rather measurement with inappropriate interpretations or misconception of a *research* technique.

The following material describes the present state of evaluation. No attempt has been made to fully describe alternative models, methods or techniques. Other writers have successfully provided texts or handbooks toward that purpose. Rather, through summarizing available evaluation models and methods an attempt will be made to clarify the misconceptions and misuses of evaluation. Specific attention will be given to evaluation of school guidance services. More than ever before, guidance personnel are being pressured for accountability and assessment of their work. This analysis of evaluation should hopefully provide assistance in understanding the present state of the art in guidance services evaluation.

Initially, a narrower scope was used to search the literature. An attempt was made to locate evaluation models, methods or materials specifically related to a rural or small school environment.

The underlying assumption was that rural and small schools have unique problems (e.g., shortages of staff, limited resources, different goals) which require unique evaluation procedures. While some information of this nature was located, it did not significantly present justification for alternative evaluation procedures for rural or small school guidance programs. Further search into evaluation models and methods offered no further differentiation between urban and rural evaluation procedures. What did appear, however, was the need for the evaluator to be or become knowledgeable of the various evaluative models and procedures available. Thus, there is not a difference between evaluation for urban and rural settings but merely a decision of which model is appropriate to the evaluator's specific conditions or choice (decision to use one evaluation model versus another, financial or staff limitations, etc.). Popham (1975) argues

> Instead of engaging in a game of "sames and differents," the educational evaluator should become sufficiently conversant with the available models of evaluation to decide which, if any, to employ. Often, a more eclectic approach will be adopted whereby one selectively draws from the several available models those procedures or constructs that appear most helpful. (p. 21).

Need for Evaluation

Although there is heightened interest or pressure for evaluation now, evaluation practices have been around for many years. The first proposed evaluation of a vocational guidance program in a city school system occurred in 1926. "Four criteria were suggested: (1) completeness, as measured by the number of activities carried on, (2) distribution of emphasis, as shown by the time and attention devoted to each activity, (3) thoroughness, as shown by the kinds and quality of work done, and (4) consistency of organization" (Miller, 1961, p. 407).

Numerous pressures for evaluation are appearing today. Funding sources, shrinking at nearly every level of government or organization, are stressing "accountability" from their beneficiaries. Some programs, especially those receiving federal education financing, are mandated to perform an evaluation. This evaluation may deal with cost-benefit analysis, cost-effectiveness measures, or accomplishments of the program. Education is held in low esteem by many of our communities. Educational systems are considered ineffective because they cannot adequately justify their results. They lack "evidence." Pressure is being applied to education to accurately prove its worth.

Professionalism is another force encouraging evaluation. Program personnel are seeking to evaluate for their own benefit. They want evaluative feedback to be able to improve programs and their own decision making. Problems "can no longer be solved by informal decisions based upon an administrator's past experience . . . or good judgment" (Spaniol, 1975, p. 2). Similarly stated by Peters and Farwell (1968), ". . . the tragedy lies not in the decision [made] but, many times, in the inadequacy, insufficiency and inappropriateness of the data at hand for the decision-making process" (p. 545). Evaluation, although verbally supported by most people, has been ineffectively accomplished. Informal judgments, informal observations and inaccurate and inappropriate data are commonly found in many evaluative activities.

> There is no issue regarding the presence or absence of evaluation. When one is faced with choice, evaluation, whether conscious or not, is present. Failure to engage systematically in evaluation in reaching the many decisions necessary in education means that decision by prejudice, by tradition, or by rationalization is paramount (Peters and Farwell, 1968, p. 546).

Evaluation of guidance service programs and accomplishments is a difficult and perplexing task. Guidance theories and models have not adequately dealt with evaluation and therefore weakened their acceptability and justification. Guidance, counseling or other nonacademic, student-oriented services have been considered ". . . intangible services, the effects of which could not be readily measured but the need for which was considered to be self evident. Those days are over" (Cook, 1973, p. 34). Evaluation in guidance functions is growing because of "theoretical pressures" due to the inadequacy of existing guidance models to provide appropriate evaluation design and strategy.

To summarize, the need for evaluation of guidance services, like evaluation of most endeavors today, is under increasing pressure. These forces may be categorized into three areas: external sources (funding agencies), internal sources (program administrators) and theoretical sources (deficiencies of existing models) (Spaniol, 1975).

Numerous examples can be cited to give evidence of evaluation's long history and development. Worthen and Sanders (1973) reported a study of personnel evaluations of Chinese civil service officials dating back to 2000 B.C., and a spelling program evaluation conducted in 1896-1897 A.D. The growth which achievement testing, personality assessment and aptitude measurements experienced in the early 1900's in the U.S. is documented in the history of measurements and testing. The most significant evaluation of that time was the Progressive Education Eight Year Study evaluation by Tyler and Smith (Cronbach, 1973).

New conceptual developments in evaluation exclude many early forms of evaluation as not "true" evaluation—determination of value or worth—but as assessment or measurement (Guba, 1973; Popham, 1975). Evaluation is certainly a catchword in today's pressure for accountability and evidence of accomplishment. However, like the intangibles of weather, everyone talks about evaluation but nobody does much about it. The inadequacies of evaluation are still overwhelming, as reported by a Phi Delta Kappa Commission report on evaluation:

> Five such lacks are listed as (a) lack of adequate evaluation theory, (b) lack of specification of the types of evaluative information which are most needed, (c) lack of appropriate instruments and designs, (d) lack of good systems for organizing, processing, and reporting evaluative information, and (e) lack of sufficient numbers of well-trained evaluation personnel (cited in Worthen and Sanders, 1973, p. 8).

Description and Definitions of Evaluation

A general tendency has been to view evaluation as something which occurs at or near the comletion of a program or activity in order to determine its successful accomplishment or failure. To determine success, states Dressel, an evaluator has to make a value judgment. "Evaluation involves judging the worth of an experience, idea or process. The judgment presupposes standards or criteria . . . based on some absolute basis . . . judged by comparison" (Dressel, cited in Peters and Farwell, 1968, p. 546).

Each description or definition of evaluation is embedded with a particular author's assumptions and concepts. Dressel's concept of evaluation represents a view which judges worth according to established standards or criteria. The focus of Dressel,and others who support criterion-based evaluation, is different from those like Stufflebeam (1973b) who views evaluation as a tool to facilitate decision making. Spaniol (1975) describes "judging" as making decisions about the relative value of evaluation results. "This is exactly the opposite of simply noting the results to draw their own conclusions" (p. 10).

While no single definition or description of evaluation is possible, there is a growing belief today that a single definition is not even desirable. Because of the various purposes of evaluation, it becomes desirable to have alternative concepts, models and techniques available from which the evaluator may appropriately choose. However, before evaluation alternatives can become appropriately used, many misconceptions of evaluation must first be clarified. A major obstacle to this has been the confusion of terms. In the past, many of these evaluative terms have been used interchangeably: measurement, accountability, assessment, appraisal, research and evaluation. Yet, conceptually these terms represent different theoretical and operational bases. Clarification of these evaluative terms has been attempted by a number of scholars in the field of evaluation (Guba, 1973; Popham, 1975; Cook, 1973; Apple, 1974).

Measurement has been described as an early form of evaluation. Measurement can provide interpretation of data relative to objective criterion, but it may be devoid of *value* judgment. A differentiation between measurement and evaluation is offered by Popham (1975). Measurement relates to "status determination" while evaluation is "worth determination." *Accountability* "shifts the historical emphasis from concern for inputs (what we do) to concern for outputs (the results of what we do)" (Cook, 1973, p. 34). Accountability gives strong allusion to education as a production process in which final products can be evaluated against predefined specifications. Similarly, *assessment* is a measure of a particular status relative to some selected criterion or standard. Measurement, accountability and assessment fit easily into the popular concept and practice of systems management and evaluation. Programs and products are assessed for need, objectives are defined and stated in measurable terms, success criteria are specified, and evaluation determines the discrepancy of outcomes from intentions.

A process common to measurement, accountability and assessment is similar to what Guba (1973) has described as "determining congruence" between what is desired or standard and what actually occurs. As an example, evaluation by performance objectives consists of a post facto assessment of terminal behavior against predetermined objectives or criteria. Terminal behavior which is congruent with expectations (low discrepancy) is considered a success. This is not the same, however, as an evaluation—a determination of worth. It merely compares outcomes with expectations. Additional characteristics of measurement, accountability and assessment include: emphasis on terminal judgment instead of continuous judgment from which ongoing refinement could occur, focus on behavior of students or other clientele without acknowledgment of other contributing factors (environment, program design), and mysticism in the establishment and validation of objectives, criteria or standards.

Much controversy in evaluation centers on the process and ideology of valuing in objectives, criteria or standards used. Evaluative judgment cannot be made from criterion *absolutes.* Values that are associated with the criteria or standards from which we assess, measure or evaluate are "assigned" values chosen from "a range of value systems that might give meaning to educational activity" (Apple, 1974, p. 8). More recent developments in evaluation models call for identification of the context implications and influences affecting the evaluation being conducted. In order to clarify meaning or interpretation of an evaluation, it is necessary to know what values contribute to the judgment, e.g., efficiency, humanistic qualities, political, etc., and to describe the rationale that gives support to these values.

Differentiation between *research* and *evaluation* design is another confusion of practitioners. Some assume that "research is the systematic collection of the data upon which evaluation takes place and evaluation is the placing of a value on the degree of success obtained" (Cramer et al., cited in Kistler, 1973, p. 54). Popham (1975) disagrees with this view by noting that both research and evaluation use a systematic inquiry, use measurement devices, analyze data, and describe their endeavors through formal reports. What differs between research and evaluation is the focus and purpose of their inquiry. The focus of research is to draw conclusions about phenomena and relationships between variables. The value emphasis of research is "truth" from which generalized statements may be made. Evaluation, however, focuses on decisions relative to a more immediate situation or environment (low generalizability). The value emphasis of evaluation is on "worth" in order that decisions may be facilitated. If research may be summarized as improving "understanding," evaluation can be summarized as improving "application."

A significant concept in evaluation differentiates between *goals* of evaluation and *roles* of evaluation (Scriven, 1973). The goals of evaluation attempt to determine the value or worth of a selected endeavor. Typical goal questions ask: How well . . . ? Of what value . . . ? Is this worth . . . ? The roles of evaluation are the varied purposes to which we direct our inquiry: attempts to improve programs information gathering before a decision is made, qualitative reporting of results. Sometimes the purpose of evaluation is not to determine final judgment of our effort but serve as a preliminary "testing" of our progress. Such a developmental purpose is labeled by Scriven as a "formative" role of evaluation. It incorporates ongoing and internal feedback that facilitates corrective modifications of itself.

Another role of evaluation is that of providing an overall evaluation—the kind scanned by administrators or consumers. Scriven calls this a "summative" role of evaluation and which is generally designed to extend judgement through external sources. Formative and summative evaluations should not be misinterpreted, as some people do, to mean evaluation of processes and evaluation of products. Evaluation of processes and products (inputs and outcomes of our programs, for instance) are goal evaluations—what we are evaluating. The intent of our evaluation, e.g., to provide evaluation feedback versus a final conclusive evaluation, demonstrates a role we have selected evaluation to provide.

The concept of evaluation has changed radically in recent years. Many misconceptions still exist, but these are diminishing as evaluation becomes more precisely defined and differentiated from similar activities. The increasing clarification of evaluation is contributing to better evaluation techniques and more appropriate evaluation strategies. Evaluation serves many purposes. We are moving closer to providing improved evaluative methodologies and rationales to meet our needs.

Methods and Models of Evaluation

An interesting note regarding the methods and models of evaluation is that the methods of "evaluating" long preceded models that could more systematically provide judgment. Measurement and testing began in the early 1900's while evaluation models have had a later beginning—mostly since the late 1960's. In addition, earlier methods of evaluating generally focused on individuals, the students or clients of educational curricula or learning programs. Since the evaluation requirements of Title I and Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, evaluation has begun to focus on program evaluation (Cronbach, 1973; Popham, 1975). Previous methods of evaluation were inadequate and inappropriate for program evaluation. Models of evaluation were needed to more fully evaluate programs than by merely evaluating products (student outcomes) resulting from the program. Program evaluation needs to look at planning and implementation aspects as well as results.

> Models are useful for systematizing existing knowledge in such a way that the gaps and overlaps in aims and procedures are made evident. A comprehensive model has heuristic value which helps planners to select and devise process and product objectives,

> implementation strategies, and procedures for evaluating their achievement. It suggests strategies for collecting and organizing feedback both to the model and its users (formative evaluation). (Jones et al., 1973, p. 3-1).

Evaluation of program effects on individual student outcomes has typically focused on areas of academic achievement, educational planning, emotional and social adjustment. Methods of evaluation used to determine effect can be classified into seven categories first described by C. P. Froelich:

1. External criteria, the do-you-do-this method
2. Follow-up, the what-happened-then method
3. Client opinion, the what-do-you-think method
4. Expert opinion, the "information please" method
5. Specific group changes, the little-by-little method
6. Within group changes, the before-and-after method
7. Between group changes, the what's-the-difference method (Froelich cited in Hartz, 1973, p. 35).

The following well known and frequently used techniques have been used as evaluation methods: pre-test/post-test approach, descriptive surveys, competency-testing, standardized tests, administrator's or teacher's self-ratings, observation techniques, interview techniques, check lists, longitudinal studies, and citations from school records.

Data collection is an important component of evaluation, but by itself it is not sufficient to serve as an "evaluation." Evaluation relates to a judgment based upon data, and also upon the purpose of the evaluation within a specified context or setting. Evaluation models serve to clarify theory, help determine the design of evaluation procedures, establish roles for the evaluator, describe relationships of the evaluation to other activities (defining goals, objectives or decision-making), specify criteria for judgment and identify limitations. Each evaluation model is different in what it can do and how it performs. A summary of the most significant evaluation models follow.

Popham (1975) has categorized evaluation models into four types: (1) goal-attainment models, (2) judgmental models emphasizing intrinsic criteria, (3) judgmental models emphasizing extrinsic criteria, and (4) decision-facilitation models. Popham's summaries of evaluation models and summaries from Worthen and Sanders (1973) will be used in addition to original source material to provide brief descriptions of various educational evaluation models.

Ralph Tyler's model of educational evaluation has been described as a goal-attainment evaluation model. Educational goals are first derived from three goal-sources (the student, the society and the subject matter) and two goal-screens (a psychology of learning and a philosophy of education). The goals are then stated as student behavioral objectives. Measurement of student performance outcomes against the pre-specified objectives determines the accomplishment of the goals. Key elements of the model are the specification of objectives and measurement of student outcomes. Essentially, it is a pre-post measurement of student performance with little evaluation of what occurs in between.

Robert Hammond describes a similar goal-attainment evaluation model that assesses the effectiveness of current and innovative programs at the local level. The steps involved include:

> (1) isolating that aspect of the current educational program to be evaluated, (2) defining the relevant institutional and instructional variables, (3) specifying objectives in behavioral terms, (4) assessing the behavior described in the objectives, and (5) analyzing goal-attainment results. (Popham, 1975, p. 23).

Although this model is similar to Tyler's, Hammond acknowledges the effects that environmental factors—institutional and instructional variables—may have in the evaluation of the program. Thus the ongoing processes of the program are also included in this evaluation. The model is considered weak in its judgmental aspects.

Judgmental models rely on the professional judgment of the evaluator to determine value of results. The criteria upon which the evaluator bases judgment may be intrinsic to the evaluation subject or extrinsic from the subject. Characteristics of intrinsic criteria are very subjectively based and thus not ideal for judgment purposes. Popham recognizes only the accreditation, third party evaluation by the North Central Association as an acceptable evaluation by intrinsic criteria methods. Intrinsic evaluation is usually evaluation by professional colleagues who make judgments and recommendations. Program deficiencies can be identified, problems discussed and solutions offered—all based upon the subjective criteria utilized by the evaluator or evaluation team. Replication of the evaluation is considered questionable due to the subjective nature of the evaluation.

Extrinsic criteria offer more objective bases upon which an evaluator may judge merits of a program. Cronbach (1973) was one of the first to promote evaluation based upon other criterion than pupil performance. Comparison of individuals offers little towards evaluation of a course or program. Evaluation should be able to identify what changes in an individual result from a program and where program improvements can be made. Michael Scriven (1973) further developed the ideas of Cronbach and clarified many important aspects of evaluation. He does not actually provide a model for evaluation, yet his contributions are part of most evaluation models being developed. One of his contributions has been previously described: distinction between formative and summative roles of evaluation.

Scriven sees the purpose of evaluation as determining merit or worth. If goals or objectives for a program are previously specified, evaluation must also look closely and weigh these objectives to judge *their* worth. It is of no merit to accomplish objectives if these objectives are themselves worthless. He also sees the results of a program as "payoff" which can offer some extrinsic data upon which to judge merits of the program. By comparing results of alternative programs, an evaluator can make judgments relative to each. Scriven describes the benefit of goal-free evaluation as allowing for unanticipated results of a program which may also be evaluated. Specifying objectives prior to a program is a limiting factor if only these objectives are used in the evaluation of the program.

Robert Stake (1973), unlike Scriven, provides a conceptual (matrix) model from which an evaluator may work. Stake's model is composed of two elements of evaluation: description and judgment of the program being evaluated. Evaluation may be either of these or a combination of both. Description identifies intents and observations of the program. Judgment includes the standards or criteria upon which judgment will be based and the judgments themselves. These may be relative or absolute, but ideally they should be developed empirically. The evaluative process consists of three phases: antecedents, transactions and outcomes. Working with the matrix designed by Stake, an evaluator is able to identify all information necessary for making a formal, rational evaluation: what was intended, and what was observed to have been occuring; standards from which to compare results and the judgments made.

Decision-facilitation models, although possessing many similarities with the other types of evaluation models, differ in that they do not provide judgment themselves but facilitate judgments made by someone else. These models collect and present information from which decisions may be made. Daniel Stufflebeam and others have introduced the CIPP model which actually encompasses four types of evaluation: *context* evaluation, *input* evaluation, *process* evaluation and *product* evaluation. CIPP's definition is very precise, and descriptive: "Evaluation is the process of delineating, obtaining and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives" (Stufflebeam, 1973a, p. 129). The model represents the continuous and cyclical process which evaluation goes through. First, context evaluation deals with the rationale and goals/objectives that become the planning focus of the program. Basically conceptual, context evaluation is descriptive and comparative. Input evaluation analyzes resources available or needed to accomplish program objectives, programming strategies are determined and assessed. Process evaluation occurs after implementation of the program when deficiencies and program weaknesses can be identified. Process evaluation is essentially monitoring program implementation and operations. Product evaluation assesses outcomes of the program according to the previously determined objectives of the program. This is similar to the goal-attainment evaluation models. At this point decisions can be made to give feedback to future planning and program modification. Evaluation can occur at any point of the program. Stufflebeam has tried to incorporate Scriven's concept of formative and summative evaluation by describing the CIPP model as a tool for evaluation as decision-making (formative) and evaluation for accountability (summative).

The CSE model describes types of educational evaluation decisions that need to be made: range and specificity of program objectives, program planning and improvement and "program certification" which determines whether objectives have been achieved. Similar to the CIPP evaluation model, the CSE model uses several types of evaluation to facilitate decision making: a systems assessment is used to determine program needs; program planning, implementation and improvement evaluation deal with program activity and development; and finally, certification as a terminal evaluation which is made similar to Scriven's summative evaluation. The decision is whether to give certification or adoption of the program. Program needs, according to the CSE model, are the differences between what exists and what is desired. A basic weakness of the model is that the values upon which judgment decisions are based are never established. Although the model is initiated from a program needs assessment, there is no context (value system or rationale) component of the model from which judgments can be justified.

The similarity of the CSE model is evident from the similarity of their definitions. CIPP's definition dealt with "defining, obtaining, and using information for decision-making." CSE's definition is: "The process of ascertaining the decision areas of concern, selecting appropriate information and collecting and analyzing information." Both evaluation models serve to facilitate decision-making by others.

A third decision-facilitation model has been proposed by Malcolm Provus. Known as a discrepancy model, this evaluation compares performance with standards. Steps of the evaluation are to define program standards, assess performance against the standards, then to use this discrepancy information to either change future performance or the standards used for assessment. Components of the model include design or definition, installation, process and product evaluations. The role of this evaluation is to facilitate administrator's decision-making by presenting decision alternatives throughout development and operation of a program. A weakness of the model is that standards for assessment are not adequately evaluated, which makes them questionable as "standards" for comparisons. Although the model may be able to measure discrepancies between program standards and performance, it lacks a methodology for the justification of the standards used.

Follow-Up

Follow-up techniques are sometimes offered as a specialized form of evaluation—a long-term evaluation of the program outcomes. Some effects of programs are not immediately apparent and thus require evaluation over an extended period of time. Program goals which emphasize individual development of "self-sufficiency," "independence," "responsibility" or "ability to make decisions" cannot always be assessed upon completion of the program. Rothney (1972) is critical of many educational programs because of their ". . . presentation of short-term behavioral outcomes in specific situations without any evidence of transfer to life situations over a protracted period" (p. 20). Follow-up studies, though strongly affected by influences of time and spurious information, are necessary to determine the long-term impact of programs. These studies provide reassessment of program intentions and outcomes after the immediate and direct influences. Additional criteria to evaluate student outcomes can be provided through follow-up studies: adult competencies and real life situations (Miller, 1961).

Follow-up information provides valuable feedback for program modification and evaluation of "effectiveness." There are several disadvantages to follow-up studies. They are time-consuming and expensive; follow-up instruments are often inadequate; and, findings are difficult to interpret because of interfering factors (i.e., causal relationships are difficult to substantiate).

Follow-up studies are vitally important to guidance programs whose goals are often not bound by time or course constraints. Review of published follow-up studies in the literature, however, shows this form of evaluation ineffectively used. Follow-up studies generally use self-reports by students to indicate the degree of satisfactoriness of their previous counseling and whatever activity they are presently performing (school enrollment, occupational status, etc.). Such information does not effectively evaluate a *program* nor the outcomes of a program. More effective follow-up measures need to be developed and used.

Evaluation as It Relates to Guidance Programs

A review of the literature of evaluation in counseling and guidance programs, 1946-1962, was reported by Metzler (1964). He reached four conclusions:

> 1. There is no agreement as to what constitutes the goals of a guidance program, and therefore it has been impossible to determine the proper criteria by which to measure effectiveness.
>
> 2. Research to determine the effectiveness of guidance programs and counseling have made only minimal contributions and have proven to be of little value to existing programs.
>
> 3. The primary acceptable criteria by which we measure counselor and program effectiveness is that of expert judgment and opinion.
>
> 4. The necessary key steps appear to be two:
>   (a) Decision on proper criteria
>   (b) Major emphasis upon longitudinal studies. (p. 288)

Search of more current literature shows little change in evaluation of guidance-related programs: "A major obstacle [of evaluation] is the lack of consensual criteria of success. In addition, it is difficult to isolate variables and to apply "controls" to the potential impact of counseling–i.e., we do not know whether a change occurs as a result of counseling, despite it, or independent of it" (Blocher et al., 1971, p. 9). Sporadic examples of improved evaluation concepts, models, and methods applicable to guidance activities are beginning to appear (Healy, n.d.; Jones et al., 1973; Apple, 1974). However, these examples have not likely been diffused widely among guidance practitioners.

Past attempts to measure the effects of guidance have generated a myriad of procedures and instruments. Each proposes to provide documentation of some real aspect out of the mysticism which surrounds guidance. And for each one proposed, a score of critics or analysts debate over validity, reliability or predictability. It is conceivable that evaluation methodologies and technologies will eventually be resolved of their current inadequacies as the field of evaluation develops. Yet, more crucial matters within guidance today center not on evaluation methodologies (for these are relatively few), but upon criteria *issues.* What should be evaluated in guidance and against what standards should it be judged?

It may be in the name of accountability and evaluation that guidance has succumbed to the "broader efficiency movement to classify, standardize and rationalize human beings to serve the productive interests of a society essentially by wealth, privilege and status" (Karier, cited in Apple, 1974). Apple fears evaluation gives support to the status quo.

> It seems that schools act to create certain student roles and expectations; groups of students either fill these and make "progress at school" or do not fill them and thus are channeled into other paths, in much the same way that deviants are created and treated by other social institutions. (p. 4)

Judgment, evaluation of merit or worth, in guidance endeavors must first focus on the goals and criteria. Presently there is little consensus as to what is desirable for guidance goals and standards. Recent developments made in how to evaluate may offer some help to guidance personnel in determining what to evaluate and the degree of their success.

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STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Karin S. Whitson

That skills, knowledges, or abilities frequently need upgrading or enhancing is an accepted fact. This need may arise because of inadequacies in educational or training programs, obsolescence of skills as a result of innovations in the profession, or the introduction of new programs or techniques. Occasionally in-service programs may involve attempts at total retraining.

The terms *in-service training* and *staff development* are frequently interchanged in the literature, and will be alternately used in this section. In addition the use of the word *staff* is not restricted to the school's educational personnel.

Career guidance functions under the umbrella of career education and, in many instances, references to *career education* imply *career guidance.* Where this substitution is appropriate, it is indicated by brackets.

> . . . if our contemporary educational system is to be restructured around the real life developmental needs of students as required for the implementation of career education [guidance], it will have to undergo major change. . . . While in-service education is not and should not be considered a panacea for all weaknesses . . ., it is one of the most important avenues for change that is available to educators, one that recognizes that the foundation of improved instruction is the human element. Staff members then will need certain competencies in the area of career education (Norton, 1975).

Staff development is provided by a variety of sources. Much work is done at the college/university level to attract professionals to the campus for conferences, seminars, or workshops. Many educators spend all or a portion of their summers attending classes on college campuses. In addition to the above-mentioned programs, many schools conduct their own staff development programs in-house. Sometimes they use the services of a consultant(s).

In-service education is a procedure used in many areas, e.g., business and industry, the various medical fields, churches, civic organizations, service and social organizations. However, the area considered here is the local school district--specifically, a local school district in a rural community. One need for in-service education arises from the desire to implement a comprehensive career guidance program in the school. An effective staff development program is essential to the success of such a guidance program.

In-service education can also raise the consciousness levels of individuals and groups potentially involved in program implementation. Staff development can be used to rally the support of parents, business and industry, community leaders, and educational staff for the implementation of new programs. "Helping these persons develop the appropriate knowledge, commitment, and skills necessary is what staff development is all about" (Norton, 1975).

> Effective in-service education, regardless of content focus, is comprised of a variety of principles, elements, characteristics, and activities that, when blended together, yield a structured program to: (1) enhance positive instructional change and program improvement, (2) remove or reduce personal/professional deficiencies, and (3) discuss and resolve issues that are believed important to the professional staff (Norton, 1975).

The need for staff development in the rural school is intensified by the unique characteristics of the rural community. The nature of the rural community has impact on school counselors, staff, teachers, and members of the community. Geographic isolation limits contact of staff members in rural schools with other professionals and prohibits extensive sharing of new ideas and innovative practices. The need for in-service education is important to counselors themselves. Of the counselors surveyed by Phipps (n.d.), one-third indicated that career guidance was one of the two areas of their training which they considered inadequate. Twenty-two percent considered career guidance their weakest area of preparation.

> Special attention must be given to a program of re-educating school counselors in both elementary and secondary school settings to education as preparation for work with appropriate attention directed towards changing counselor attitudes and providing counselors with a variety of kinds of work experience and opportunities to interact with members of business, industry, and labor (American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1971).

The shortage of available full-time counseling staff in rural schools mandates that teachers function in a guidance capacity. The typical classroom teacher has not been exposed to either career development theory or career guidance practices. "It is easy to see that regular classroom teachers cannot hope to possess such special competencies, yet must work with some pupils who need them" (McClurkin, 1970).

Because counselors are often not available in rural schools and when they are, their schedules are overloaded, the involvement of teachers, parents and community leaders in a career guidance program is necessary. The lack of guidance and counseling background which is characteristic of these individuals verifies again the need for in-service education. Through in-service education, guidance and counseling training can be provided for these individuals.

> Implementing career education [guidance] into a local school district will require some new knowledge, attitudes, and skills on the part of all instructional and supportive personnel. These new attitudes and knowledges will have to be transformed into changed professional behaviors. Because changed professional behaviors are called for, it will be necessary to give careful attention to preparing teachers and staff who will make the real difference between success or failure of career education [guidance] (Nelson, n.d.).

Staff development programs are being planned and implemented throughout the nation—each with a varying degree of success. However, many do not meet existing needs.

> In recent times, there have been . . . many attempts by the education profession to retread and revitalize certain aspects of the profession. . . . Several states, such as Ohio, Oregon, Michigan, and New York, mounted leadership development programs even though they found them to be costly. More and more extensions of school contracts are being written to include a week or two at the end of the school year

> for professional growth activities. The American Vocational Association, U.S. Office of Education, and vocational education research and development centers have provided special conferences and seminars. But even by adding all these up and doubling their sum total for those efforts that may be overlooked, the impact is still weak, a nondescript and uncoordinated system of keeping vocational education viable (Schaefer and Ward, 1972).

In-service education programs generally are aimed at improving the skills of school staff members. The target population for a staff development program to implement comprehensive career guidance is too often limited to the counseling staff.

> Most in-service education programs have as their general purpose updating and upgrading of the competencies of participating counselors. Many focus on career planning and development skills, general vocational guidance skills, or vocational guidance skills for servicing special populations such as minority or disadvantaged youths or noncollege-bound youths (Ganschow et al., 1973).

However, members of the community are becoming aware of their potential role in increasing the relevance and significance of the school career guidance program. Not only is their awareness expanding, their willingness and eagerness to become involved is increasing the viability of the career guidance program being offered to the youth in their community. In a recent survey (The Center for Vocational Education, 1973), a broad spectrum of citizens reported that they had positive attitudes toward the use of resources in the school. Further, favorable attitudes toward volunteering time to the school were reported.

Educators in another study (California, 1975) expressed positive attitudes toward the use of community resources. It is, therefore, reasonable "to believe that the expansion of community resource utilization is realistic because persons who must be involved in its planning and functioning want it" (California, 1975).

Scattered indicators of community interest and participation in staff development have not been heeded. Most in-service programs continue to be specifically developed for counselors and teachers alone.

Once the need for staff development has been established, a strategy for the planning and implementation of a training program must be designed.

> In-service education begins with development of a strategy including who is to be involved, their needs, and the expected outcomes . . . accountability begins with defining what is to be accomplished and how it is to be measured (Haines, 1973).

Much has been written addressing the steps involved in preparing staff for the implementation of career guidance programs. Planning is always identified as critical. Steps recommended for inclusion in the planning process are (1) identification of coordinator, (2) identification of target audience, (3) needs assessment, (4) resource assessment, (5) goal articulation, (6) goal prioritization, (7) resource allocation, (8) program design, and (9) implementation. However,

> A consensus is not reached in the literature regarding the optimum format for in-service education. Scheduling, duration, and amount and type of structure in the program vary in both recommendations and practice (Ganschow et al., 1973).

"Each situation [in-service] is completely different, and those items that meet the needs for a particular location . . . should be considered" (Washington State, 1973). An earlier section of this document, "The Rural Environment: Unique and Shared Characteristics," identifies the unique qualities of the rural community which must not be overlooked during the staff development planning process. Exemplary questions which serve as guidelines for dealing with the distinctive characteristics of the rural community follow:

1. What goes on in a rural community?
    - kinds of activities
    - services available
    - varied groups, agencies, organizations, and institutions
    - distinctive characteristics—implications for programming
2. What characterizes rural people?
    - dominant attitudes and values
    - how and what do they think
    - leisure time involvement
3. What kinds of motivations are already present . . .?
4. Are there ways of tapping into these existing motivations?
5. What are some ways of developing new motivations?
6. What are some ways of more functionally relating programs [staff development] to the unique problems posed by rural settings?
7. What are some methods of involving a broader spectrum of rural groups, agencies, organizations, and institutions . . .? (Iowa University, 1973).

Staff development programs for comprehensive career guidance, while sharing a number of common elements must be planned with the needs, interests, and unique traits of the rural school and community in mind.

> In-service efforts in career education [guidance] should not attempt to mold or shape staff members to fit into a prescribed category; but through active participation and involvement, staff roles should evolve in a framework that facilitates the acquisition of confidence, positive attitudes toward career education [guidance], and the technical skills and knowledge to effectively perform those roles (Norton, 1975).

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COMMUNITY RELATIONS AND INVOLVEMENT

Walter Stein

Problem Statement

The school does not exist in a vacuum; it exists as a part of the community. Its ultimate policies and direction are determined by the local citizenry through the Board of Education. One would conclude from the above that this would automatically make the school responsive to, and aware of, community needs. Indeed, the system was designed to that end. Evidence tends to show, however, that in recent decades the school is, in fact, irresponsive to the needs of the community in general, but perhaps responsive only to the few who are most verbal.

Loustaunau (1975) says that for small or rural schools to have adequate curricula, community awareness and action are necessary. She further states that the enrichment of rural life should begin with the schools because there is a synergistic effect.

> The school not only needs community support, but can use positive community attitudes as a force for development. The people need to have a voice in educational policy and control, to set goals and objectives and then see that they are carried out. The community may also contain a good deal of untapped talent and skill that could be used to provide supportive services to local schools.

Waishan (1973) states that early schools were integrated into the life of the community; now they are isolated from the adult community due to transience and larger size.

Hoke and Jobe (1973) tell us that community involvement needs to be an on-going and dynamic process. Schools should listen to the community to find out what people think and, in many cases, help to educate the community concerning public school education—its programs and problems.

Cutlip (1973) makes a strong case for community relations and involvement. He says one of the reasons for rising criticism and declining support for public education is the wide gulf between schools and their communities. Successful education must redefine the process of school governance to include the parents. The gulf between educators, parents, and taxpayers can only be bridged by a planned two-way communications program. This is the essence of school-community relations, and career education and career guidance represent an effort to be responsive to community needs and concerns.

The success of the program depends upon the creation of an educator-parent partnership in which the schools:

1. Take the public into partnership in a sharing of ideas, goals, and participation in the program.
2. Provide an adequately staffed community relations program which can provide opinion and informational feedback from the community and use it to counsel staff and administration

on ways to adjust to or change the views and values of the various publics as they impinge on career education.

3. Interpret effectively and continuously the program's goals, plans, and methods of implementation of career education to the community in the full realization that only informed support will be enduring support. (Cutlip, 1973)

Finally, Strong et al. (1975) suggest two kinds of placement networks which probably also operate in many other areas of the career guidance program:

1. An informed network consisting of family, peers, community members, previous users, etc.
2. A formal network including public and private social service agencies, employers, professional and trade organizations, and the like.

The problem, then, seems to be to organize the two kinds of networks described to enable the schools to form the school-community partnership described above. The purpose of such a partnership is, of course, to interpret the schools' program to the community and to enlist community support. Some strategies for accomplishing this will be discussed.

Goals of the school-community partnership in rural communities may include the following:

1. To improve the schools' public relations program
2. To communicate feedback information from the community and business
3. To create mutual respect and confidence between educators and community leaders
4. To provide experience and expertise in those areas vital to a program preparing students for the world of work
5. To provide assistance in the selection and location of training stations
6. To assist the teacher-coordinator in curriculum development and improvement
7. To provide assistance in locating instructional materials
8. To provide one source of input for program evaluation and review
9. To provide continuity for the program in the event there is a change in teachers
10. To provide a source of employment for graduates (*Cooperative Vocational Education in Small Schools*, ERIC/CRESS, 1972).

Cinque (1974) suggests in addition:

11. To increase students' awareness of the many occupations available
12. To promote personal relationships in the community through parent-parent interaction and in the school district through parent-teacher interaction.

Other writers (Indiana State Board of Education, 1974 and Weishan, 1972) have outlined various other goal statements which can basically be subsumed under one or more of the preceding twelve noted here.

Strategies for Promoting Community Relations and Involvement

The key to an effective rural career guidance program is good community relations. Community involvement may be enhanced by the following strategies:

1. Strengthening the image of the rural career guidance program in the community
2. Establishing a means of identifying a pool of expert resource personnel to serve the school and the career guidance program, as needed, in a variety of functions
3. Developing an on-going system of promoting good community relationships
4. Obtaining advice on curriculum and program changes
5. Obtaining assistance in the placement function of the career guidance program (both in post-secondary education and in occupations)
6. Creating a viable system of advisory councils which will function in a positive and on-going manner
7. Training school personnel in the use of a variety of community relations techniques (Robinson, 1972)
8. Prioritizing the use of community relations techniques to assure optimum effect from the program and preventing "overkill" in the community
9. Cataloging and disseminating to staff, sites and persons in the community through which students may receive experiences related to occupational information, exploration and placement, either permanently or on a hands-on-experience basis

Robinson titles his work *Rural Community Resources as a Guidance Tool: An Action Plan* (1972). Unfortunately, it evolves into a listing of committees to implement a means of finding, scheduling, greeting, and putting before school audiences community human resources. Another barrier to the transportability of this plan to the general rural scene is that it also involves the use of advanced students in guidance and counseling with close coordination with the local university.

Weishan (1973) suggests the following strategies for gaining community participation: (1) Establish advisory, liaison, and review committees to provide advice and participation in the educational program for upgrading curriculum, guidance, and placement functions. These committees should be populated by members of service clubs, minority organizations, business organizations, labor organizations, government agencies, and others; (2) Develop staff review committees; (3) Arrange for radio and television programs related to the effects on the community of school and other decisions.

Church (1975) suggests twin approaches of "teaming" and "scheming." Teaming is the use of community resources as a part of the total educational structure. This includes the use of business, industry, and education to promote occupational exploration and dissemination of occupational information. Scheming includes methods and techniques to commit community resources to an integrated career education program. Field trips, guest speakers, and slide-tape presentations are examples of these techniques.

Cutlip (1973) outlines a sophisticated approach which may well be beyond the funding capabilities of most rural schools. He suggests creating a department of communications and community relations that will:

1. provide a system of fast, flexible internal communications to keep all personnel informed and to keep rumor and misinformation to the minimum

2. develop a community monitoring mechanism, including personal contacts, advisory committees, opinion surveys, and analysis of news media content to keep administrators and staff fully informed of community views, values, and needs as these relate to public schools

3. carry out a systematic program of public communication, utilizing media, organizations and groups to generate interest in and support for career education

4. provide consultant and planning services to the administrators, teachers and school board

5. coordinate planning and development of information and community relations operations in the sub-areas of the community-wide system

Steps in developing a community relations program:

1. Fact-finding and feedback—building a substantial library of information on career education and periodic sampling of community opinion

2. Planning and programming

3. Communication and action

4. Evaluation—leads back to Step 1: a wheel

The key publics:

1. The internal public

2. The influential publics—community power structure

3. The news media

Hoke and Jobe (1973) present another concept designed to develop a direct, almost daily involvement with business and industry in practically all phases of the educational enterprise. They suggest that the superintendent form a career education citizens advisory group to become aware of community ideas and become responsive to them. There would be two kinds of career education advisory councils.

1. The duty of one group is to review the total system-wide curriculum, facilities, local manpower needs, job placement needs, activities, and techniques

2. The more limited functioning group, a vocational advisory council, updates curriculum to assure level-entry job skills. Strengthens vocational programs and performs vital placement services

The advisory council approach to improving educational opportunities boils down to four major items:

1. The key to the effectiveness of the career education advisory council lies with the superintendent and his sincere efforts to have a council that is involved in meaningful activities

2. Another important factor is the selection of council members who are both influential and concerned citizens of the community

3. The council chairpersons ability to lead the council in identifying goals and developing strategies for accomplishing these goals is of critical importance

4. Developing the proper relationship with the board of education and school staff is crucial and must be determined at the outset

Burt (1973) suggests a similar approach. Two of his points seem especially well taken and different from the ideas of most other authors:

1. community resource workshops to uncover available community facilities and personnel

2. training seminars for community volunteers to give them some pointers before they become actively involved in the school program

Shack and Van Zandt (1970) have developed a coordination model (Figure 11) for utilizing community and school resources which could form the basis of a systems approach to community resources and involvement.

In harmony with this model seems to be a systems approach developed by Weishan (1972):

1. Preliminary analysis of community resources.

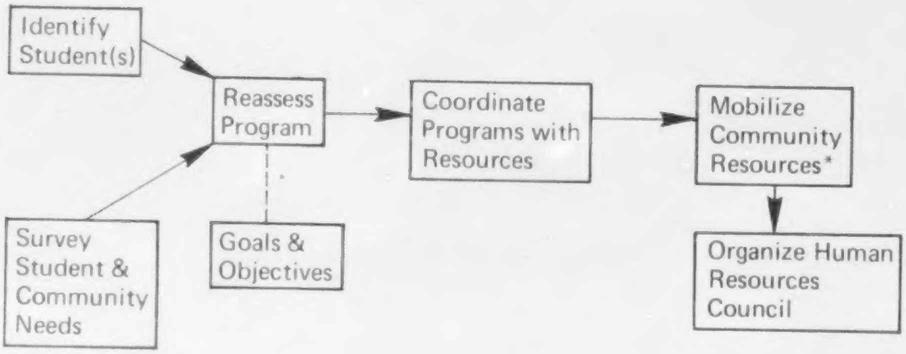
    a. Identify the potential sources of community involvement in the areas of:
        (1) Instructional services.
        (2) Guidance.
        (3) Program planning and administration.
        (4) Student placement.
        (5) Cooperative work experience.

    b. Identify the school's existing contacts with various potential community resources.

    c. Identify the areas where the school has no real contact with its potential community resources.

FIGURE 11

Coordination Model


Identify Student(s)
Reassess Program
Coordinate Programs with Resources
Mobilize Community Resources*
Survey Student & Community Needs
Goals & Objectives
Organize Human Resources Council

*Business, labor, industry, service, community organizations; local, state, national government and private agencies; religious, fraternal, school groups, etc.

d. Organize in a useful manner the various kinds of different resources potentially available to the school.

e. Document any known indication of a particular community resource willingness and/or desire to cooperate with the school system in a particular way.

f. Potential sources of information: Personal contacts, yellow pages of the phone book and white pages under state-local government, chambers of commerce, labor organizations, local social service agencies, professional associations, civic groups and clubs, employment services.

2. Develop a community relations management information system—information relative to:

   a. Potential community resources for career education—individuals and/or groups.

   b. Potential kinds of community resources—plant tours, guest speakers, volunteers.

   c. Existing contacts the school has established with particular individuals and/or groups in the community.

   d. Evaluation data on the past methods and campaigns of community relations specific to particular individuals and/or groups.

   e. Current data on the attitudes and opinions of target sub-publics towards career education.

3. Formation of an advisory committee for community relations—objectives:

    a. To assure community input into the planning and implementation of CCEM's community relations programs.

    b. To bring key people from the community on board the career education project at an early formative stage.

    c. To combine the perspective and expertise of community and the school system people in developing a workable community involvement program.

    d. To provide the schools with vital contacts to key community publics.

    e. This committee must be broadly representative—labor, parents, students, business, special interest groups, local government, teachers, school administration, guidance people, etc.—yet small enough to be a working body. The group must actually formulate and/or influence programs and policy and not just rubber stamp staff decisions. Should meet regularly and be a working task force type group and not merely an in-name-only advisory group.

While the literature suggests some strategies for involving community resources in a limited way, i.e., as members of advisory, liaison and review committees (Weishan, 1973); as community resource personnel (Nelson and Bloom, 1973); as on-the-job training and occupational exploration resources (Dillon, 1973); and as assistants in the placement process (Strong et al: 1975); there is no discussion which has come to light, of a coordinated, comprehensive complete community relations program designed specifically for a rural school career guidance program.

The strengths of the programs cited seem to be in (1) their strategies using community resources to resolve a specific problem; (2) the multiplicity of strategies available, i.e., advisory councils, individual resources, and use of community agencies; (3) the communication between the school and the community concerning school programs and needs; (4) generally improved communication between school and community; and, (5) the provision of a mechanism to smooth the transition, for youth, from student to contributing community member. While these strengths are important and needed a comprehensive program to accomplish most or all of these items is lacking.

What is needed is an identification and an amalgamation of those programs which show promise. This will facilitate the design of a comprehensive program which a rural school district could adopt in order to accomplish complete coordination of community resource functions in the light of local school-community needs.

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SUMMARY

This comprehensive review offers insights into the unique characteristics of the rural home, school, and community. It also analyzes the manner in which these characteristics impact on the career development needs of rural youth.

An in-depth review of the literature supported the hypothesis that students living in rural areas have limited career development opportunities. This condition is due primarily to the severe lack of financial and physical resources. In addition, the problem is compounded by the following characteristics of the rural setting: (1) lack of broadly representative role models for rural youth, (2) geographic isolation of many rural schools, (3) declining job opportunities, and (4) lack of sufficient number of qualified guidance staff.

Career guidance is a programmatic effort designed to meet the career development needs of youth. Effective career guidance programs are developed by recognizing and building upon the unique strengths of the home, school, and community.

This review revealed a tremendous strength in the availability of human resources which can be used to great advantage in planning comprehensive career guidance programs for rural schools. Planning the implementation of such a comprehensive program can best be accomplished by involving the community as well as the school staff in an ongoing effort.

Assessment of specific career development needs of students is a prerequisite to realistic planning. The two distinct approaches to assessment are testing for global program planning and development—a group approach, and testing for counseling—an individual approach.

The literature is very consistent on the next step of program planning. There is overwhelming support for the concept of developing local goals and objectives for guidance program revision or development. It is also important to consider whether the resources of a particular community are adequate to support the established goals and objectives. Every community has unique resources which can serve the local career guidance program. These resources need to be continually identified and evaluated.

For a career guidance program to be effective, members of the entire school staff must be aware of their responsibility to foster self-understanding, decision-making, and problem-solving skills in the individual student. Their awareness and contribution to the development of these skills and their insight into the personal lives of students are valuable methods of meeting individual needs.

One-to-one counseling may still be the most valuable of a counselor's methods. However, in view of predictable time constraints, she/he must rely on input from other staff members. The role of counselors and school staff is vital to the delivery of comprehensive guidance programs in the rural schools. Apart from the support of counselors and school staff, numerous guidance functions need to be provided by the home and community to achieve the objectives of a comprehensive career guidance program. Some guidance programs involve, to varying degrees, parents, employees, clergy, employers, experienced workers, and community agency personnel.

Effective staff development is vital to the success of comprehensive career guidance programs which rely heavily upon inexperienced community members for input into all aspects of program planning and delivery. The attitudes and values of parents, school staff, and employers in the community may also need examination and modification in light of the need to expand career options of rural youth.

Indicated throughout the materials presented and cited, is the need for continuous program evaluation related to the guidance program objectives.

The study of the literature disclosed a large number of models for career guidance program development, but none specifically tailored to the needs of rural communities. This State of the Art highlights the essential components of a systematic approach to program planning and implementation. However, the need still exists for a model and detailed procedures for developing a comprehensive career guidance program in rural settings. This need was addressed by the Comprehensive Career Guidance, Counseling, Placement, and Follow-through System for Rural Schools which has been developed in light of the findings this paper presents. This entire developmental effort constitutes the *Rural America Series.*

CREDIBILITY REVIEW PANEL MEMBERS

This rural school career guidance project represents an effort to build upon the unique strengths of the rural setting and to overcome the problems faced by educators, parents, employers, and students in rural schools and communities. The use of local credibility review panels was designed to provide an assessment of the relevance and feasibility of the ruralized processes and products generated as a result of this project. Individuals representing educators, students, parents, and employers were organized into fifteen review teams across the states of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Ohio. The following individuals gave freely of their time and competencies over a year's period to increase the effectiveness of our efforts.

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